

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 348 258

SO 021 620

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TITLE Perspectives on Peace: A Resource for Teaching Peace and Security Issues.
INSTITUTION Close Up Foundation, Arlington, VA.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-932765-34-3
PUB DATE 90
NOTE 138p.
AVAILABLE FROM Close Up Foundation, 44 Canal Center, Alexandria, VA 22314 (\$15.95).
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Teaching Guides (For Teacher) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Resources; *Foreign Policy; High Schools; *International Relations; Peace; Social Studies; Teaching Guides; Teaching Methods; World Affairs
IDENTIFIERS *Peace Education; USSR

ABSTRACT

Designed to help teachers discuss and explore with students the many aspects of peace and security in a rapidly changing world, this teaching manual examines the issues from many different points of view. Students are encouraged to examine the issues, collect information, and present their own views and opinions based on the facts. The book contains six chapters, each of which explores a particular aspect of peace and security. Chapter 1, "Perspectives on Peace," looks at the concept of peace itself and asks if a nation can have peace without a security apparatus. Chapter 2, "Eye on the Soviet Union," is an examination of U.S.-Soviet relations and the impact the two superpowers have had on peace and security issues for the last 50 years. Chapter 3, "The Human Condition: Poverty and Peace," asks the question: can a nation be at "peace" if poverty, hunger, and human suffering exist within its borders? Recent democratic movements in Eastern Europe and Central America have raised many questions concerning peace and security issues--not just for the United States, but for the rest of the world as well. Chapter 4, "Democracy: The Road to Peace?" looks at these movements and studies the impact they will have on global stability. Chapter 5, "The Global Environment: A Common Trust," discusses an issue that many experts believe will serve as a bridge to unite former enemies behind the common cause of solving the world's massive environmental problems. Chapter 6, "The World Economy," examines the concept of interdependence and how trade and business relations can work to bring the world closer together but also can create "economic conflicts" among friends and enemies. The book suggests a variety of instructional strategies, and each chapter contains activities that list objectives, outline a procedure, and offer additional suggestions. Twenty-two student handouts are included, as are lists of resources on peace and security issues corresponding to each chapter of the book. (DB)

PERSPECTIVES ON PEACE

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PERSPECTIVES ON PEACE

DEVELOPED BY MARCEL LEWINSKI

A RESOURCE FOR
TEACHING PEACE
AND SECURITY
ISSUES

20 Years of Education for Democracy

Close Up Foundation
Stephen A. Janger, President

The Close Up Foundation is a nonprofit, nonpartisan educational foundation dedicated to encouraging citizen involvement in government. Throughout the year, the Close Up Foundation conducts a Washington-based seminar program that brings high school students, teachers, and older Americans to the nation's capital for weeklong, onsite learning experiences. During the 1990/91 program year, the Foundation's 20th anniversary year, approximately 28,000 people will participate in the Close Up Washington experience.

Additional copies of *Perspectives on Peace* and information about other Close Up publications are available from:

Educational Media
Close Up Foundation
44 Canal Center Plaza
Alexandria, VA 22314

1-800-765-3131

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Printed in the
United States of America

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Library of Congress
Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Perspectives on peace: a resource for teaching peace and security issues.

p. cm.
Includes bibliographical references.

ISBN 0-932765-34-3

1. Peace—Study and teaching (Secondary)—United States. 2. Security, International—Study and teaching (Secondary)—United States. I. Close Up Foundation.

JX1904.5.P4273 1991

327.172:071273—dc20

90-27092
CIP

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am deeply indebted to many people for their encouragement, advice, and assistance. Fred Ginnocchio provided insight and inspiration. The staff of the Mennonite Peace Center allowed me to make extensive use of their library and its resources. A gifted teacher, Donna Krasnow, was a tremendous help in completing the chapter on environmental issues. Cathy Townsend reviewed several lessons and provided me with many ideas, especially regarding the relationship between poverty and peace. I am particularly grateful to my good friend Lois Barnes, who unselfishly shared her expertise about new developments in the Soviet Union. Nancy Szatko deserves appreciation for making my manuscripts presentable. Finally, I want to acknowledge the support of the Close Up Foundation, whose belief in the study of peace and security issues led to publication of this work.

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Glen Ellyn, Illinois
August 1990

Special thanks to G. Dale Greenawald, Staff Associate, Social Sciences Education Consortium, for contributing the material on teaching strategies.

This publication was funded by a grant from the United States Institute of Peace.



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INTRODUCTION

Historians will look back on the events of 1989 and 1990 as turning points in history. With unexpected speed, people around the world rejected existing political and economic systems. Symbols of the old order, such as the Berlin Wall, were shattered. In Germany, Eastern Europe, Central America, and even the Soviet Union, the walls of totalitarianism swayed and buckled under massive political upheaval. For many people around the world, peace, not war, broke out in the last decade of this century.

At the same time, however, events in the Middle East reminded the world that war is always a possibility. With Iraq's sudden invasion of Kuwait in August 1990, the Middle East was again at the center of the world's attention. Oil jitters were felt in the industrialized world, and the economic health of many nations was threatened. Tens of thousands of refugees flooded into Jordan and Saudi Arabia, and television screens around the globe were filled with scenes of the suffering and hardship that always accompany war.

These conflicting trends—the worldwide yearning for freedom on the one hand and eyeball-to-eyeball confrontation on the other—make these challenging times for anyone wishing to study the causes of conflict and to teach young people about peace and security issues. The purpose of this book is to help teachers discuss and explore with their students the many aspects of peace and security in a rapidly changing world.

WHY TEACH ABOUT PEACE AND SECURITY ISSUES?

Many teachers believe that the study of peace and security issues is very important in a social studies curriculum. Their rationale for adding peace studies to the curriculum is based on three concepts. First, they believe that educating students about peace is important to developing competent citizenship. In this fast-changing world, the need for well-informed citizens is greater than ever. Most teachers today agree that the United States needs citizens who are capable of critically analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating issues facing a world that is becoming more socially and economically interdependent.

The nation's schools are charged with preparing young people for citizenship, and citizenship education has always been an important goal of social studies teachers. But today, many educators believe there is a need to expand citizenship education to include the teaching of peace and security issues. Recent studies found that nearly all state social studies supervisors believe that alternatives to war should be taught in the public schools. In addition, a conference sponsored in part by the National Council for the Social Studies concluded that national security education

should be part of the secondary school curriculum. But, according to many teachers, there is an even more overriding reason for teaching about peace and security today. In a world where nuclear weapons still threaten the very existence of the planet, students must be able to understand and participate competently in public policy debates regarding global issues, national security, and alternatives to war and violence.

Another reason to teach about peace is that it is a vital component of global education. Many teachers think that it is time to turn their focus away from exclusively "American" topics and to look at the role of the United States in a global community. Today, much of the social studies curriculum looks at the relationship between the United States and other nations.

In 1987, the National Council for the Social Studies identified four essential elements of global education: 1) the study of human values; 2) the study of global economic, political, ecological, and technical systems; 3) the study of global issues and problems—peace and security, development, environment, and human rights; and 4) the study of global history. Clearly, peace and security issues are thought to be part of global education.

A third reason for adding peace and security issues to any unit of study is that students want to learn more about peace. Many social studies educators claim that by the time students reach high school they have studied countless wars and violent conflicts in American and world history classes. They are now ready to learn about the alternatives. According to Colman McCarthy, a syndicated columnist and founder and director of the Center for Teaching Peace, "Students are hungry to learn nonviolence. They understand that it is more than a noble ideal. . . . This generation wants a healthier approach. It wants to read, write, and talk about the alternatives to violence and then to act on them. It wants the basics."

APPROACH

In this book, the concepts of peace and its associated security issues are examined from many different angles. As such, each chapter explores a particular aspect of peace and security. Chapter 1, "Perspectives on Peace," looks at the concept of peace itself and asks if a nation can have peace without a security apparatus. Chapter 2, "Eye on the Soviet Union," is an examination of U.S.-Soviet relations and the impact the two superpowers have had on peace and security issues for the last fifty years. Chapter 3, "The Human Condition: Poverty and Peace," asks the question: Can a nation be at "peace" if poverty, hunger, and human suffering exist within its borders? Recent democratic movements in Eastern Europe and Central America have raised many questions concerning peace and security issues—not just for the United States, but for the rest of the world as well. Chapter 4, "Democracy: The Road to Peace?" looks at these movements and studies the impact they will have

on global stability. Chapter 5, "The Global Environment: A Common Trust," discusses an issue that many experts believe will serve as a bridge to unite former enemies behind the common cause of solving the world's massive environmental problems. Chapter 6, "The World Economy," examines the concept of interdependence and how trade and business relations can work to bring the world closer together but also can create "economic conflicts" among friends and enemies.

This book's purpose is to present peace and security issues in an objective, nonpartisan way. Students are allowed to examine the issues, collect information, and then present their own views and opinions based on the facts. This allows students to decide for themselves answers to such questions as: What is peace? Can peace be achieved in the world today? What role does defense and national security play in obtaining peace? Thus, the goal of each of the activities in this book is to present alternatives and allow the students to decide which is best according to their own beliefs and values. In this way, the book avoids "preaching about peace" and simply presents alternative viewpoints.

FORMAT

Today's teachers have too much to teach in too little time. High schools often require three years of social studies education. Most often, students are required to take basic courses in U.S. history, American government, world history, geography, and economics. There appears to be little room in the curriculum for teaching peace and security-related issues.

With this limitation in mind, the activities in this book are designed to supplement existing core social studies courses. The activities will help strengthen education about peace and security by enlivening the curriculum with vital concepts that will make social studies more relevant, interesting, and understandable to students. Rather than giving the social studies professionals even more to teach in an already crowded schedule, the lessons should help them do a better job with the courses they are currently teaching.

The decision as to exactly where in the curriculum or unit of study each activity can be used is left to the individual teacher. Ideas about when to teach peace and security issues, conflict resolution, and alternatives to war will vary from teacher to teacher, school to school, curriculum to curriculum. Teachers are encouraged to use their imagination and expertise to fit these activities into their existing course of study. The lessons are flexible and can be adapted to any social studies classroom. As such, they offer a way for teachers to infuse peace education in their regular ongoing curriculum.

Each activity is designed to be taught in one to three classroom periods. The lesson opens with a short introduction for the teacher that includes the main points of the lesson, followed by a list of objectives and a detailed procedure for teaching. In addition, there are suggestions for extending the lesson. Most activities involve one or more student handouts that can be easily duplicated for student use.

The activities will provide a variety of educational experiences for students. Please note that none of the lessons follows a traditional lecture format. Rather, all involve class discussions using student handouts to establish a common base of knowledge. This active-learning approach motivates students to become interested in the vital issues of peace and security and to go beyond mere recognition or knowledge of the facts. Ideally, students should be able to critically analyze, synthesize, and evaluate the issues and concepts presented.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Perspectives on Peace incorporates a wide range of activities. While you have undoubtedly developed a teaching style that feels comfortable and works for you and your students, educational research shows increasingly that the most successful teachers are those who can effectively apply a wide array of teaching strategies. Successful use of teaching strategies requires attention to at least minimal guidelines for each. The following section provides you with some general "tricks of the trade" and suggestions derived from experienced classroom instructors.

DECISION-MAKING/PROBLEM-SOLVING ACTIVITIES

Any thoughtful analysis of peace and security issues inherently involves making decisions and solving problems. A variety of models are available for leading students through this process. The steps in the model presented below can be written on poster paper and displayed at the front of the room. Then, throughout your course of study, whenever students are discussing a decision or addressing a problem, refer them to the model. Show students how they can apply the steps in most situations to find the best solution.

1. Identify situations where a decision is required or a problem must be defined.
2. Identify likely sources of information about the issue(s).
3. Collect relevant information.
4. Classify, interpret, analyze, summarize, synthesize, and evaluate the information.
5. Recognize values related to the decision.
6. Prioritize values.
7. Identify alternative courses of action.

8. Predict the likely consequences of each alternative.
9. Make a decision based on the data you have and your most desired outcome.
10. Act to implement your decision.
11. Assess the results of implementing your decision.
12. Recognize the need to change your decision when warranted by new information.
13. Recognize gaps in information and areas needing further study.

BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a technique for quickly generating a broad spectrum of ideas about a topic. Because no initial evaluation or discussion is allowed, brainstorming is a nonthreatening strategy that allows every student to participate regardless of academic ability. The topic for brainstorming should be clearly stated, allow for a diversity of ideas, and require no extensive prior knowledge for a student to become involved. Responses should be posted as students call them out and no discussion should be permitted because it may inhibit creative but risky ideas. You may want to write the following brainstorming rules on the board before you start:

- Say anything that comes to mind.
- Piggybacking on the ideas of others is permitted.
- Do not evaluate or criticize what others say.
- When you cannot think of anything else, wait a minute and try again.

Another strategy for encouraging creativity is to apply the SCAMPER technique to each of the ideas suggested during brainstorming. SCAMPER allows the teacher to stimulate responses and organize them properly.

SCAMPER Technique

- S — substitute, subtract
- C — combine
- A — adapt, add
- M — modify, minify, magnify
- P — put to other uses, piggyback
- E — eliminate
- R — reverse, rearrange

Conclude a brainstorming session by focusing students' attention on the purpose for conducting the activity.

DEBATE

A debate can be an effective means of presenting most positions on peace and security issues. It may be difficult to involve all students in a single debate, so non-team members should serve as judges, moderators, or timekeepers to maintain interest. Holding several debates will allow all students to be on a debate team. The following debate procedures may be helpful when conducting a debate:

1. Select a topic—possibly one suggested by the class.
2. State the topic as a resolution. For example: *Resolved that the United States should send foreign aid to countries who need it the most, regardless of their political stance.*
3. Select pro and con debaters and allow them time to research and prepare.
4. Select a timekeeper and a moderator.
5. Seat the debaters in front of the class with the moderator in the middle; position the side favoring the resolution to the right of the moderator and the opponents to the left.
6. Begin the debate by having the moderator read the resolution and introduce the first speaker supporting the resolution. Speakers may only talk for a predetermined length of time.
7. The first opposition speaker then presents his or her arguments in the same amount of time. This format of alternating pro and con speakers continues until all speakers have presented initial arguments.
8. Rebuttal arguments are made for the specified amount of time, beginning with the group opposed to the resolution.
9. Conclude the debate by polling the class. Discuss any changes of position in the audience. What were the most persuasive arguments presented by both sides?

PANEL DISCUSSION

A panel discussion is an effective means of researching and discussing a topic while allowing a sizable number of students to participate. The following guidelines may help you conduct a panel discussion:

1. The moderator introduces the topic and panelists.

2. Panelists present their views for a specified amount of time until all have spoken.
3. Panelists are given an opportunity to question other panelists and to discuss the issue.
4. The moderator closes the discussion with a summary of panel presentations.
5. The moderator calls for a forum period during which the class may question panelists.
6. Conclude the panel discussion by polling the class. Discuss any changes of position in the audience. What were the most persuasive arguments presented?

CLASSROOM USE OF RESOURCE PERSONS

Local communities often offer a vast, untapped resource. The Close Up Foundation has been a pioneer in using experts in the community to educate youth. Close Up believes that community members have much to offer students and should be included in school instruction as often as possible.

Teachers have often invited local citizens into their classes as guest lecturers. While using guest lecturers may be successful with some students, other approaches may work as well. One of the most effective uses of resource persons is to provide students with a problem or issue similar to one with which the resource person must contend.

Ask students what they would do in dealing with the problem or issue. Then have the resource person critique students' responses. This strategy has the benefit of limiting preparation time for the resource person because he or she simply has to apply professional knowledge in critiquing students. In addition, such a tactic generates student interest because the resource person is bringing his or her expertise to bear on students' own ideas. This technique usually generates healthy discussion and a large number of questions.

Teachers and resource persons should always work together closely to plan the classroom visit. The following tips can help you prepare for a successful visit by a resource person to your class:

1. Prepare the resource person. Tell him or her about the characteristics of your students, what they have been studying, and what to expect from them. Suggest topics you would like to have the person cover and find out what he or she requires for the presentation.
2. Prepare students adequately. Give assignments far enough in advance so that students can complete them. Discuss the visit by the resource person and explain procedures for the visit.

3. Have one or two students meet the resource person and direct him or her to the classroom.
4. Have students prepare name tags or desk nameplates to help the resource person identify students.
5. Assist the resource person in classroom management if necessary. Do not leave the room.
6. Begin classroom activities immediately.
7. If necessary, help the resource person to terminate the presentation and depart gracefully.
8. Provide the resource person with feedback about the presentation and write a note of appreciation.
9. Have alternatives planned just in case the resource person does not arrive. These alternatives should be educationally sound and fit in the context of the current unit of instruction.
10. You might want to give the resource person the following do's and don'ts ahead of time to make him or her feel more comfortable.

Do:

- consider the age and experience of the audience.
- prepare adequately.
- maintain eye contact.
- solicit feedback frequently.
- encourage active participation early on.
- be yourself; let your personality show; smile; relax.
- call on and interact with a variety of students.
- circulate around the room.
- involve the teacher.
- make sure everyone hears all questions and answers.
- know the objectives of your visit and how the visit relates to what students have been studying.

Do not:

- lecture at students.
- use jargon or unfamiliar words.
- act condescendingly.
- become angry at heckling or passive response.
- react defensively to criticism.
- read a prepared speech.
- talk in a monotone.
- assume that students either have or lack knowledge about a given point.

ROLE PLAYS AND SIMULATIONS

One of the most effective instructional techniques, when used correctly, is role play or simulation. This technique enables students to experience a situation from the perspective of persons actually involved in a similar situation. Role plays and simulations are an effective means of transmitting knowledge, and have a powerful impact on attitudes as well. Finally, role plays and simulations are excellent ways of allowing students to examine a situation from all perspectives.

The following guidelines will help you conduct successful role plays and simulations:

1. Present the problem, situation, or task clearly and make sure students understand.
2. Help students identify appropriate sources of information that will inform them of the perspective of the group or person they represent.
3. Involve everyone. If there are not enough roles for all students, create new ones or develop several versions of the simulation simultaneously.
4. Involve all students as quickly as possible.
5. Begin with simple activities. Students without experience in role plays and simulations may require time to develop the skills necessary to do them well.
6. Consider having students reverse roles. Assign students to represent views that they do not advocate personally.
7. Be certain before beginning that students adequately understand the perspective of the individual or group they represent. Allow students enough time to locate and analyze information and prepare their roles. Use this preparation time to talk with groups and individuals to gauge the degree to which they understand their roles.
8. Create an accepting environment where students can make mistakes, take risks, and be creative while being responsible. Do not expect polished performances immediately.
9. Conclude with a thorough discussion. Highlight the instructional objectives you had for the activity. What did you want students to gain? Relate the role plays or simulations to what students had been and will be studying. Explore how students felt and what their feelings suggest about the people

who experience the situation in real life. Did students feel that the roles they played were accurate representations of the real people? What did they learn from the experience?

Do not be discouraged if the role play or simulation does not work well the first few times you use it. This technique can be difficult to use initially, but pays handsome dividends once mastered.

SMALL GROUP COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Many teachers have been doing small group work for years. Recent research suggests ways in which teachers can conduct small group activities more effectively than by simply putting students into groups and assigning them a task.

The following guidelines will help you use cooperative small group work successfully:

1. Small group activities can create opportunities for loss of control; therefore, such activities require class members to follow rules. Sample rules might include the following:
 - Move quickly and quietly to groups and remain there.
 - Talking between groups is prohibited.
 - Talking within groups must be done quietly.
 - All groups must have leaders whose task is to keep the group working, make sure that everyone participates, and keep discussions focused on the issues.
2. Organize groups heterogeneously and design group tasks in such a way that every student becomes involved.
3. Encourage students to help each other without actually doing the work of another group member. One way to encourage cooperation is to award both grades based on individual work and grades based on the performance of the group. Design tasks so that each student can be assisted by his or her peers, but cannot have the peers do the work of the individual.
4. Help students develop the skills necessary to work well in small groups. You might review the content objectives of each activity and discuss the following questions:
 - What helped this group work well together?
 - What interfered with this group's working well together?
 - What could members do next time to help improve the group's work?
 - Did everyone participate? Why or why not?

5. Keep group size small; three to five students is optimal.
6. Give clear directions and allow adequate time for students to complete the task.
7. Monitor group activities to spot areas of difficulty.
8. Use small groups only for cooperative tasks, not for independent work while merely sitting with others.

DEVELOPING RESEARCH SKILLS

An essential part of every student's education is to learn how to research an issue, adopt a position, and argue persuasively for that position. Many students have few skills in these areas. If students are to obtain the information they need to act as informed public policy shapers, they need your help in developing these essential skills. The following list of skills provides a handy sequential organizer whereby teachers can guide students through the research process:

1. Recognize that research should be aimed at gaining understanding and a complete view of an issue, not simply at gathering information to argue a predetermined point.
2. Learn how to limit a subject based on time and resources available.
3. Identify sources of appropriate information.
4. Use indexes, tables of contents, and other aids to locate pertinent information quickly.
5. Understand information in written, pictorial, graphic, cartographic, mathematical, and other formats.
6. Evaluate sources of information for bias, accuracy, pertinence, and authority.
7. Take notes.
8. Organize information.
9. Analyze information and draw inferences.
10. Synthesize information and develop arguments.
11. Organize ideas.
12. Support ideas.

-
13. Articulate or write ideas in an organized and readable manner.
 14. Document sources.

Close Up hopes that the information presented in this introduction will make your task of teaching about peace and security issues easier and enrich the quality of instruction for your students.

CHAPTER 1 PERSPECTIVES ON PEACE

What is peace? Is peace simply the absence of conflict or war, or is it the opposite of injustice? This is the focus of Chapter 1. This chapter provides perspectives on peace, beginning with students' examining their own perspectives and looking at peace historically. The next activity examines what famous people in the past have said about peace and war and asks students to analyze the thoughts of various writers. The third activity looks at conflict. Students will explore factors that contribute to conflict, such as governmental and economic instability, the desire for national security, the longing for freedom and self-determination, and opposing cultural norms. The last activity defines national security and asks students to compare and contrast national security issues.

ACTIVITIES

WHAT IS PEACE?

This activity is designed to get students to think about peace. The goal is to have students share different perspectives on peace and to recognize that peace can be broadly defined.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. List possible meanings and applications of the concept of peace.
2. Compare and contrast personal perspectives on peace.
3. Discuss factors that threaten peace today.

Procedure

1. Write "peace" on the board. Ask students to write a paragraph of at least five sentences using peace as its subject. Students can approach the concept of peace any way they choose. Some may choose to define peace. Others may write that it is impossible to achieve, essential to develop, a goal to work toward, and so forth. Some students may view peace on an individual basis, while others may see it from a global perspective. Emphasize

that there is no right way or wrong way to complete this paragraph. Give them ten minutes to finish. When everyone is finished, ask each student to read his or her paragraph aloud.

2. Urge students to listen carefully as the paragraphs are being read. After everyone has finished, ask students to talk about ways the word "peace" has been used. How did different students define peace? Do they think it is possible to come to an agreement on the definition of peace? Why or why not? Expand the discussion by asking whether the paragraphs were generally optimistic or pessimistic. Perhaps you might want to poll the class on how many were optimistic and how many were pessimistic about peace.
3. Next, discuss factors in the world that threaten peace. Write responses on the board and try to categorize the factors mentioned. (Most factors will be political, ethnic, economic, or religious, but there may be others.) Conclude this activity by discussing which categories may be easiest to solve and which may be hardest to solve. Ask students how they might contribute to eliminating the factors that threaten their idea of what is peace. What can they do to make themselves, their community, or the world more peaceful?

Additional Suggestions

1. Have your class prepare a collage about peace on the bulletin board. Students should clip articles, pictures, cartoons, and so forth that reflect on the broad themes discussed in this activity and pin them to the bulletin board as they are collected.
2. Ask students to research specific political, ethnic, and religious conflicts that exist in the world today and prepare a written or oral report. Have them present their reports to the rest of the class.

PEACE IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Peace and war have concerned humans since ancient times. The goal of this activity is to get students to see that not everyone has the same perspective about peace that they do and to compare various perspectives with their own personal views.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Recognize that the issue of peace has been a concern of people since ancient times.

2. Discuss why some people believe that there are times when war is justified.
3. Draw inferences from historic quotations.

Procedure

1. Begin by discussing with students the idea that people have been concerned with the issues of war and peace since ancient times. Why do they think this is so? Has there always been conflict? Has there ever been a long period of world peace? Which are they most likely to study about in a history class—war or peace?
2. Next, distribute **Student Handout #1—Quotations About Peace**. Ask students to pair up and review the quotations on the handout, choosing the two quotations with which they most agree. After each pair has made its choices, ask them to share their opinions with the rest of the class. Encourage students to agree or disagree with the others. Stimulate debate by asking: Is war ever justified? Would Martin Luther King, Jr., and Theodore Roosevelt agree or disagree with each other? Did Malcolm X define peace the same way as Cicero? Would George Washington and John Kennedy have agreed with each other? Could you use the term "peaceniks" in describing the winners of the Nobel Peace Prizes who were quoted? The quotes offer many chances for students to compare and contrast. Develop questions that challenge students to analyze each quote as the debate progresses.
3. Close by asking students what conclusions they can draw from these quotations. Possible conclusions may be:
 - Peace is an important concern.
 - There are those who believe that war and violence are justifiable.
 - Some people believe that war and violence simply breed more war and violence.
 - Some people believe peace comes from freedom and without freedom there can be no peace.
 - Some people think that being prepared for war is the best way to ensure peace.

Additional Suggestions

1. Have students write a one or two paragraph essay explaining the quotation they like best. Encourage them to cite historical examples whenever possible. Ask for volunteers to read their essays in class.

2. To shift discussion, ask students to write a one or two paragraph essay on any war they feel was justified. Encourage them to list reasons why they believe it was a "good" war. Ask for volunteers to read their essays in class.

THE CAUSES OF CONFLICT

The word "conflict" is derived from the Latin *conflictus*, meaning "to strike together." Dictionaries define conflict as "a clash, a competition, or mutual interference of opposing or incompatible forces or qualities, such as ideas, interests, or wills." This activity asks students to look at conflict and to recognize that it can be constructive as well as destructive.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define conflict.
2. List causes of conflict.
3. Discuss how conflict may be both positive and negative.
4. Explain conditions under which conflict can escalate or de-escalate.

Procedure

1. Write "conflict" on the board and have students brainstorm words and images they associate with conflict. List their responses on the board. The list will probably include such words as anger, hostility, hate, and war. When finished, point out that most—perhaps all—responses are negative.
2. Next, discuss with students whether conflict can ever be constructive. Explain that conflict by itself is neither positive nor negative. It can be destructive if it is not resolved or when it turns to violence or war, but it can be constructive if it allows people to air their differences and move forward to resolve them. Ask students to try to come up with some examples of constructive conflict.
3. Distribute **Student Handout #2—Escalation and De-escalation of Conflict**. Give students a few minutes to read the handout. Follow with a discussion. Explain that the effect of most responses to conflict is either escalation or de-escalation. Ask students what they think are the causes of the conflict. Explain that while the list of causes may be long, most can be categorized into three areas. As you discuss each of the three categories, ask

students to name historical examples of each. Can they name any other causes that may not fit under one of these three categories?

- *Conflicts over resources.* These conflicts occur when nations (or people) want the same resource and there is not enough to go around. (Examples: Iraq seizing Kuwaiti oil fields; Hitler attacking Poland for *lebensraum*.)
 - *Conflicts over psychological needs.* Nations, like individuals, have needs such as power, friendship, belonging, and accomplishment. When these needs are denied, conflict arises. (Examples: Great Britain's war with Argentina after Argentina seized the Falkland Islands; Germany's aggression in World War II after being humiliated by defeat in World War I and the treaty that followed.)
 - *Conflicts involving values.* Values are the basis for what people believe. Humans respond to challenges to their values emphatically and defensively. (Examples: Communism vs. capitalism; Catholics vs. Protestants in Northern Ireland; Hindus vs. Muslims in postcolonial India.)
4. Conclude this activity by distributing **Student Handout #3—Statements About Conflict: Agree or Disagree?** Give students time to read and write down their responses to each statement. Then, with a show of hands, poll the class on each statement and ask students on opposite sides to tell why they responded as they did. Ask them for examples supporting their positions. The **Teacher Background Notes for Student Handout #3** at the end of this chapter may be useful while leading the discussion. Ask students what they can conclude from this discussion about the causes of conflict.

Additional Suggestions

1. To expand the discussion, you might want to introduce your students to the concept of "Spaceship Earth" in discussing conflicts over resources. (We all live on the same planet; therefore, we must learn to cooperate to protect our planet and live together peacefully, regardless of nationality, borders, race, religion, and so forth.) Point out that the 20 percent of the earth's population living in developed countries uses 80 percent of the world's resources. How could this lead to conflict? Why? What are some ways to avoid or resolve this conflict?
2. Review the statements about conflict on **Student Handout #3** by having class members play a game of charades where students act out the statements without speaking. Have one or more students dramatize one of the statements while the rest of the class tries to guess which one it is.

NATIONAL SECURITY

Since people first began to live in organized groups, the safety of the group's members has been an important concern. History is full of stories of violence and war as one people after another fought to protect borders and territories against invasion or control by outside powers. Another way of looking at this concept is to define such activities as protection of vital economic and political interests, the loss of which would threaten fundamental values and the vitality of a people. This broader definition reflects the fact that worldwide political events such as inflation, monetary instability, ecological disasters, and the like affect national security. This activity challenges students to define and examine the many facets of national security and how this concept relates to peace.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define national security.
2. Recognize the many facets of the national security issue.
3. Compare and contrast views on national security issues.

Procedure

1. Ask students to pretend that they are the minister of defense of a nation. Without giving them any more information, ask them what strategies would they use to defend their country. Write their responses on the board. Then, have students categorize the strategies. Categories will likely include:
 - develop defensive fortifications
 - prepare for war—build up arms
 - use offensive tactics—"get them before they get us"
 - negotiate treaties
 - disarm—become neutral and nonthreatening

Point out that defending the nation is only one aspect of national security. Explain that national security is a complex concept that has many facets.

2. Next, distribute **Student Handout #4—National Security Questionnaire**. Allow students a few minutes to complete the questionnaire. When everyone has finished, ask the students to explain their responses to each item. Use the following discussion points:

Item 1. Explore different notions regarding military strength. Have the superpowers' nuclear arsenals made either nation more secure? Ask students to explain the inability of the United States to win the Vietnam War and the failure of the Soviet Union in its war in Afghanistan.

Item 2. Ask students if they would be willing to go to war to protect U.S. oil sources. Are U.S. interests ever in conflict with the national security interests of the oil-producing nations?

Item 3. Focus the responses to the use of U.S. aid and not on Mexico itself. Who should receive aid? Should aid be tied to politics or be awarded on the basis of need?

Item 4. Ask students who agree with this statement which country today poses the biggest threat to U.S. national security. Is self-sufficiency or economic interdependence the best way to make the United States secure?

Item 5. Ask students if it is a "duty" for the United States to ensure that democratic governments are installed in Eastern Europe. Why or why not? How would the installation of new democracies there affect the national security of the United States?

Item 6. Point out that the debt is usually owed to individual banks and not to governments. Discuss what would happen if nations defaulted on debt payments. What effect would it have on the banks? On the respective governments?

Item 7. Point out the possible effects of ecological disasters on national security. For example, the spread of radiation from the Chernobyl accident crossed national borders, the cutting and burning of the Amazon rain forests contributes to the world-wide greenhouse effect, and oil spills can cover thousands of miles of shoreline in several different countries. What should be done to prevent such disasters? Is the United States doing its part?

3. Conclude this activity by asking students what they now think national security is. How would they define it? They should conclude that national security means protection of vital economic and political interests as well as protection of the nation's borders. Ask students to think about how a nation might protect its national security through peaceful means. Is this possible? What are some difficulties? What are some advantages?

Additional Suggestions

1. Put student responses to defending their country as minister of defense in historical perspective. For example, in the Middle Ages fortifications included walled cities and castles. Today we fortify the silos that protect our missiles. Ask students to think about how nations have defended themselves in the past. Do any of the same tactics apply today? Which historical weapons were technological breakthroughs that affected security, just as nuclear weapons have affected security today (longbows, armor, gunpowder, repeating rifles, machine guns, poison gas, and so forth)? With what weapons will future wars be fought?
2. Ask students to write an essay entitled "What Is National Security?" They should explore how they think the United States should provide for its national security. Ask students to read and discuss their essays in class.

TEACHER BACKGROUND NOTES

Discussion points for Student Handout #3

1. *Conflicts tend to get broader by dragging in more people and more issues.* Conflicts tend to escalate. Often an escalated conflict develops momentum of its own, so that the original cause of the conflict is no longer important, and the action-reaction cycle goes on after all parties have forgotten what the original conflict was about. Students may cite examples supporting both sides. The Cuban Missile Crisis may be an example of a conflict that did not escalate. World War II is an example of one that did.
2. *Threats make violence less likely.* Students may cite nuclear deterrence as an example of where nations threatened each other but did not resort to violence for fear of the consequences—namely nuclear war. Others may disagree, arguing that threats may trap the threatened person into using violence he or she would not have otherwise used.
3. *Differences in power make negotiation more difficult.* Differences in power make the use of coercive tactics more likely. Genuine negotiation and problem-solving occur best when both sides are equal. Agreements between superpowers and Third World nations are often difficult to reach because the weaker nations distrust the stronger. Most students will likely agree.
4. *Conflicts tend to become more intense and more violent.* Viewing another person, group, or nation as a friend or as an enemy is a self-fulfilling prophecy. The effect of having that viewpoint is to make it come true. Most will agree.

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5. *Threats can focus attention and encourage change.* Threats between nations may make them realize that they had better resolve their differences before it is too late. Students could cite the Camp David Accords in which Israel and Egypt—nations that had threatened and fought each other for years—decided it was time to try to resolve their differences before they destroyed each other. Other students may disagree, arguing that many people or nations will not back down when threatened, thereby making change less likely.

CHAPTER 2 EYE ON THE SOVIET UNION

Chapter 2 focuses on the Soviet Union. The first activity examines perspectives—how different people view the same issue or event. The second activity reviews Mikhail Gorbachev's "new thinking" about security and analyzes changes now occurring in the Soviet Union. A final activity makes students aware of the diversity of political thinking in the Soviet Union and gives examples of existing political points of view.

ACTIVITIES

MUTUAL PERCEPTIONS: EAST VS. WEST

Misperceptions and misunderstandings occur everyday. Sometimes, misperceptions come about because of carelessness. They may also result from cultural bias or ignorance. However, the ability to see the world from someone else's perspective can reduce the chances of conflict and lead to better understanding.

Perspective is also important in foreign relations. In today's world of delicate diplomatic, trade, and military negotiations, Americans cannot overlook the viewpoints of other nations. U.S.-Soviet relations are no exception. This activity asks students to look at the origins of the Cold War as presented from one American and one Soviet perspective.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define the concept of perception.
2. Describe the possible effect of perception on the analysis of historical data.
3. Analyze the origins of the Cold War from Soviet and American perspectives.

Procedure

1. Distribute copies of **Student Handout #5—Whom Do You See?** to all students. Then, ask students to write down what they think is the age of the woman in the picture. Solicit a few

responses. It will soon be obvious that some students see a young woman and others see an old woman. Focus the activity by asking students why they think some see one figure while others see a different figure.

Introduce the concept of perception—that we mentally become aware of ideas, concepts, and the world around us through our five senses (sight, hearing, smell, touch, and taste). Explain that how a person perceives something often comes from existing preconceived ideas. Point out that our perceptions are based on past experiences, moods, attitudes, and values. Ask students how perceptions might affect certain relationships. For example, if a person perceives all police officers as intimidating, how will he or she feel if a policeman moves next door? How do perceptions affect their own lives, such as relationships between themselves and their teachers, seniors and freshmen, their school and their major “crosstown rival”? Expand the discussion by asking students how perceptions might affect foreign relations.

2. Next, distribute **Student Handout #6—Two Perspectives on the Cold War**. Explain that the first reading looks at the origins of the Cold War from the American perspective, and the second reading gives the Soviet perspective. Also point out that these two interpretations reflect typical ways of thinking during the height of the Cold War and may be different from current interpretations. Allow enough time for all students to read the handout either silently or by taking turns reading aloud in class.
3. When all have read the handout, ask students how the reading relates to the “old woman-young woman” handout. Point out that even though both authors are looking at the same events, they see things very differently.
4. Now, ask students to call out adjectives describing the Soviet Union and its actions based on the “American Point of View” article. Write responses on the board. (Morison describes the Soviets as manipulative, untrustworthy, unwilling to back up their word, inflexible, and encouraging conflict.) Follow by asking students to call out adjectives describing U.S. actions and write them on the board. (Morison describes Americans as willing to negotiate, peace-loving, supportive of self-determination, and resorting to threats only as a last resort.) Students will soon recognize that many adjectives about the Soviets are negative while most adjectives about the United States are positive.

Then, ask students to list the causes of the Cold War according to the Soviet writers. (They blame American misperceptions, intellectual blindness, Churchill’s and Truman’s desire to maintain military supremacy, the adoption of the policy of containment, and American inflexibility.) Write these

responses on the board and ask students if they agree with this viewpoint. Why or why not?

5. Conclude by asking about the consequences such different perceptions have had on U.S.-Soviet relations for the past fifty years. What may have been done before the recent thaw in U.S.-Soviet relations to achieve a better understanding between the two nations and their people?

Additional Suggestions

1. The concept of perception is a key one. Expand this lesson by finding some optical illusions to show to your class. Use optical illusions to illustrate that we see with our brains as well as our eyes.
2. You might want to separate the two readings in **Student Handout #6**, with one half of the class reading the Soviet side and the other half reading the U.S. side. Then, conduct a panel discussion or debate with players from both sides arguing the causes of the Cold War and determining who is at fault. Choose a moderator to keep the debate moving. Relate this activity to "real-world" situations between nations that are enemies.

SOVIET VIEWS OF PEACE AND SECURITY

Mikhail Gorbachev has changed Soviet perceptions of peace and security from the way his people and Americans are used to viewing it. Previous Soviet leaders believed that their military strength would convince their rival, the United States, to accommodate them. However, this plan did not always work. Instead, the Soviets began realizing that economic and political threats are more common than military threats. Gorbachev calls this change in Soviet foreign policy *novoe myshlenie*, or "new political thinking."

The former goal of Soviet foreign policy was to move other countries toward communism. Gorbachev now says that if peace and communist ideology come into conflict, peace is more important. This activity examines this change in the Soviet world view.

Objectives

After completing the activity, students should be able to:

1. Identify Mikhail Gorbachev and define his policy of *perestroika*.
2. Describe why and how the Soviet concept of security has changed.

3. Explain how new Soviet thinking is a break from traditional Marxist-Leninist philosophy.
4. Evaluate whether new Soviet thinking is being put into practice.

Procedures

1. Point out to the class that in 1989, *Time* magazine chose Mikhail Gorbachev as its "Man of the Year." Show students the cover, if possible. Among reasons *Time* gave for its choice were:
 - Gorbachev helped nudge his country off the path of nuclear destruction.
 - He opened the machinery of government to greater public scrutiny than ever before.
 - He became a symbol of hope for a new, more open Soviet Union, one more concerned with the welfare of its citizens than the spread of its ideology.
 - He was the person who most influenced the year's events.

Next, distribute **Student Handout #7—How We See the World of Today**. Explain to the class that this is an excerpt from Mikhail Gorbachev's book, *Perestroika*. Allow enough time for everyone to read the handout.

2. Begin the discussion by asking students why Gorbachev believes international politics were simpler forty years ago. What are the realities of modern times that, in his opinion, have made international relations more complicated? (Gorbachev mentions the diversity and increased number of nations that have emerged since the end of World War II, gives several examples of the emergence of global issues, and mentions the danger of the destruction of the world by nuclear weapons.)

Broaden the discussion by asking how Gorbachev has changed the Soviet concept of national security. How does he assess his country's security, if not in military terms? (Gorbachev says security cannot be obtained purely by military power in a nuclear age and that national security is tied to mutual security. He also says that economic and/or political security may be more crucial today than military security.)

Ask students to comment on Gorbachev's statement that "security is indivisible." Have them explain what they think Gorbachev means. (Answers will vary, but Gorbachev is saying that the security of all nations are intertwined. One nation cannot be secure unless all nations are secure.)

3. Traditional Marxist-Leninist philosophy urges world revolution and says that capitalist systems will fail in favor of socialism and, ultimately, pure communism. Soviet foreign policy and views of peace and security were once based on these traditional views.

Ask students to explain how Gorbachev's views break with this traditional line of thinking. They should point out that:

- Gorbachev emphasizes that the universal human value of peace is a priority over socialism.
 - He argues that the world is becoming more and more interdependent. Therefore, socialist and capitalist countries must cooperate, rather than conflict, with one another as Leninism preaches.
 - Wars that lead to revolution can no longer be seen as "progress" toward socialism and global peace, because today's wars can destroy all mankind.
 - Gorbachev speaks of "relations of equality" between capitalist and socialist states, meaning a pluralism of states that rejects the Leninist view of a world moving toward socialism.
4. Ask students how Gorbachev's concept of "peaceful competition" or coexistence seems to be different from that of previous Soviet leaders. (Previous leaders saw peaceful coexistence as a temporary measure that would help the Soviet Union and socialism move ahead. However, Gorbachev seems to view it as a necessary and permanent condition to prevent nuclear war.)
5. Conclude by taking a class poll. Ask for a show of hands of students who believe that the Soviets are serious about wanting peace and that their new thinking is genuine. Then ask for a show of hands of those who believe the new thinking is "just talk" and that the Soviets will soon revert back to their old ideas and therefore cannot be trusted. Ask students to tell why they believe as they do. Do they have solid arguments, or are they merely basing their opinions on emotion?

Carry this activity further by organizing a class debate. Select teams from both sides and have them prepare their arguments. They will have to do some outside research to prepare for the debate, looking for evidence to support their positions. Choose a moderator to keep the debate moving and orderly. At the end of the debate, debrief the class by asking which side won. Did the debate change anyone's mind? Which side had the best arguments?

Additional Suggestions

1. Reading **Student Handout #7** may prove difficult for some students. Therefore, an alternative approach would be to ask students to read the article aloud, occasionally stopping and explaining terms as you go along. Focus in on key lines, making sure students understand the nature of Gorbachev's comments.

2. Have a group of students keep track of developments in the Soviet Union for one week. They should look at as many newspapers and newsmagazines as possible. At the end of the week, the group should present a five-minute "news summary" to the entire class using pictures and articles they have clipped. Ask students how they think these developments affect U.S.-Soviet relations. Do these events provide evidence that Gorbachev's new thinking is succeeding or failing? Why? Ask them to speculate on what the Soviet Union will be like one year from now.

SOVIET FOREIGN POLICY: DIVERSE VIEWPOINTS

The political situation in the Soviet Union today is highly fluid. Despite the fact that Mikhail Gorbachev has unprecedented legal powers, he and his policies are being criticized by old-line Marxist conservatives on the right as well as by reformers on the left.

Conservatives criticize Gorbachev for moving too quickly toward change. They cite in particular the de-politicizing of the armed forces and governmental ministries and the tolerance for differing views within the party. Conversely, liberals argue that Gorbachev has not moved fast enough and blame him for the country's economic problems. This activity makes students aware of the diversity of political thinking in the Soviet Union today.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Recognize that diverse political thinking exists in the Soviet Union.
2. Identify differing opinions on new thinking within the Soviet Union.
3. Analyze statements to determine whether they support or reject Gorbachev's new thinking.

Procedure

1. Distribute **Student Handout #8—Soviet Foreign Policy: Diverse Viewpoints**. Tell students that the collection of quotes in this handout represents the range of political opinion that characterizes Soviet politics today. Review the directions and make sure everyone understands the assignment. Allow enough time for everyone to complete the handout.

2. When students have completed the handout, discuss the results using the **Teacher Background Notes** found at the end of this chapter as your guide.
3. Finally, ask students what conclusions they can draw from this assignment. Try to steer the discussion to the conclusion that the Soviet Union today has a wide range of political opinion, some favorable to Gorbachev's new thinking, some unfavorable. Discuss the likelihood of successful political parties in the Soviet Union. Will the Soviets ever elect a noncommunist president? Will Soviet elections ever resemble U.S. elections?

Additional Suggestions

1. You might want to have students complete **Student Handout #8** as a homework assignment or work on it in groups of two or three. Interested students might want to investigate similar divergent groups in the United States—apart from traditional Democrats and Republicans.
2. Ask students to pretend they are delegates to the annual Communist Party Congress and to write a speech supporting or opposing Gorbachev. Ask for volunteers to deliver their speeches in front of the class and then discuss them with all students.

TEACHER BACKGROUND NOTES

Discussion points for Student Handout #8

Item 1. Ligachev is known as Gorbachev's most powerful conservative rival in the Communist Party Politburo. His statement refutes new thinking and stresses class struggle ideology.

Item 2. This viewpoint seems to support the idea of peaceful competition, but for a different reason than Gorbachev's. Krasin accepts new thinking because he believes it will mean the ultimate victory of socialism. Gorbachev's new thinking nullifies the concept of the ultimate victory of socialism by accepting the diversity of social and political systems in the world.

Item 3. Gerasimov's statement points out that the Soviet Union accepted, even promoted, the changes in Eastern Europe in late 1989 that led to free elections and toward market economies. This is new thinking in action.

Item 4. This official slogan of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, seen during May Day celebrations on May 1, 1989, rhetorically supports new thinking. It is interesting to note to students that

foreigners are commended, not condemned, as in the past. Foreigners are referred to as fighters for social progress and democracy.

Item 5. For the first time in Soviet history, the public was allowed to participate in the May Day parade in Moscow. This slogan protests government policy toward Lithuania. Students may suggest that the marchers were the real new thinkers and that Gorbachev does not consider the common human values of freedom or self-determination priorities when it comes to Lithuania.

Item 6. Former Foreign Minister Shevardnadze's comments are an example of new thinking. Since new thinking stresses the growing interdependence of nations and the need for cooperation to defend human values, the Soviets have proposed increased use of the United Nations and other international organizations.

CHAPTER 3 THE HUMAN CONDITION: POVERTY AND PEACE

Anation can find peace and security in many ways—from building a large military force to declaring itself neutral and nonaggressive. But can a nation be at “peace” if poverty, hunger, and human suffering exist within its borders? This chapter examines the relationship between poverty and peace by introducing students to the concept of First World, Second World, and Third World and having them analyze statistical data to draw conclusions about the differences. The chapter also explores the politics of aid and stresses how hunger and starvation may affect the peace and security of nations.

ACTIVITIES

KNOW YOUR WORLD

The majority of the world’s people live in less-developed countries—countries where the average per capita income is a fraction of that found in most industrialized countries. Most of these countries make up what is called the Third World. The First World consists of the United States and other noncommunist industrial nations, while the Second World refers to the Soviet Union and its allies. Most of the developing countries of the Third World are in Africa, Asia, and Latin America and are politically unaligned with either superpower.

In recent years, the gap between the industrialized countries of the First World and the less-developed countries of the Third World has grown. More emphasis has been placed on the economic differences rather than the political differences between developed and less-developed countries. For this reason, the use of the terms “North” and “South” has grown. North includes the wealthier countries—both communist and noncommunist; South includes all others.

The following activity helps students become more aware of what life is like in a developing nation and allows them to explore solutions to global problems.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Identify the terms First World, Second World, Third World, North, and South.

2. List characteristics of Third World nations.
3. Analyze statistical data and draw generalizations from the data.
4. Discuss obstacles to economic development in less-developed countries.

Procedure

1. Write "Third World" at the top of the board. Ask the class to brainstorm what Third World means to them. Ask for free association of the thoughts evoked by the term. Write their responses on the board. Then, with students' input, categorize responses. For example, categories might include people, places, food, housing, and so forth. Then, discuss the terms First World, Second World, Third World, North, and South with the class. What does each term mean? (See the introduction to this activity for some background information.)
2. Next, distribute **Student Handout #9—A Hunger Quiz**. Ask students to circle the answers they believe are most correct without spending a great deal of time thinking about each item. After everyone is finished, review their answers. Correct answers are: 1 d; 2 b; 3 b; 4 a; 5 c; 6 d; 7 a; 8 c; 9 b; 10 d.
3. Explain to students that they are going to examine statistics comparing life in the First World, Second World, and Third World. Distribute **Student Handout #10—Demographic Statistics**. Divide the class into groups of three or four. Using the statistics, each group should discuss and answer the questions at the end of the handout. Have each group present their answers to the rest of the class. Discuss student responses. (Suggested answers are provided in the **Teacher Background Notes** at the end of this chapter.)
4. Conclude by asking students to think of some obstacles to economic development faced by Third World countries. Such obstacles should include:
 - *Population*. In many countries the population is so large that there are not enough resources to support it.
 - *Agriculturally based economies*. An agrarian economy gives people an extra incentive for having large families. Children are thought of as extra workers and providers for elderly parents.
 - *Inadequate development or lack of natural resources*. Few natural resources or lack of power sources discourage heavy industry.
 - *Political instability*. In many Third World nations, the political situation is unstable. Governments spend a large percentage of their meager resources on the military. Some governments

- have corrupt leaders who live lavishly at the expense of the people.
- *Lack of education and technology.* Most Third World nations do not have the highly literate population or high level of technical skills they need to build an industrial society. They have little money for education to train engineers or scientists.
 - *Social attitudes.* Developing countries often have traditional economies in which people live much as they always have and resist change.

Students may identify other legitimate obstacles to economic development. Ask students how a nation might overcome these obstacles. List responses on the board. Which possible solutions seem most likely to succeed? Why? Do any of these solutions pose a threat to any nation's national security? Why? How might the efforts of some Third World nations to better themselves be viewed as "destabilizing" factors in international relations?

Additional Suggestions

1. Ask a small group of students to imagine that they are leaders of a developing country. They should describe the conditions that exist in their imaginary country and draw up a plan to bring about economic growth. Ask the group to present its plans to the rest of the class, asking the other students to critique the plan.
2. Divide the class into five groups, representing a First World country, a Second World country, a Third World African country, a Third World Asian country, and a Third World Latin American country. Then, have each group research what life is like in their country. Stress that group reports should deal with specifics and cite statistics when available. The focus should be on why each country should care about world poverty, how conditions in their country might affect global or regional stability, and what they might do to alleviate poverty.

THE POLITICS OF FOREIGN AID

The U.S. government began to give aid to foreign countries in the 1940s. The goal at that time was to improve the economic welfare of people living in war-devastated countries. The Marshall Plan, instituted in 1947, gave billions of dollars to help rebuild war-torn Europe and was so successful that by 1951, Western European economies were prospering again.

In the atmosphere of the Cold War, U.S. foreign aid programs sought to fight hunger and poverty and contain communism. By providing food, technical know-how, education, capital, and arms, the United States hoped to increase the stability of less-developed nations

and encourage them to resist communism. This intermingling of development and security assistance programs has continued ever since.

The following activity examines the obligations, if any, that the United States has to poor and hungry people of other nations. It describes the different types of aid and lists the pros and cons of each. It also asks students what should be the goals of U.S. foreign aid policy.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Discuss the obligation of the United States to help poor and hungry people of the world.
2. List the reasons why nations give aid.
3. Describe the different types of aid and the arguments for and against each type.
4. Discuss the arguments for and against U.S. foreign aid policies in general.

Procedure

1. Explain to students that about 500 million people in the world today do not have enough food and that about half of the world's people live on less than \$300 annually per capita. Begin the discussion by asking whether the United States and other developed nations have any obligation to these people. Allow students to state opinions on both sides of the issue and explain their reasoning.
2. Broaden the discussion by asking students to estimate the percentage of the U.S. gross national product (GNP) that is currently directed to foreign aid. Do they think this is less or more than in the past? Do they think other developed countries provide foreign aid? (In the Truman era, foreign aid constituted about 2 percent of the U.S. GNP, but today it is less than one-fourth of 1 percent. Of the eighteen countries providing aid, the United States ranked last in percent of GNP.) Does the Soviet Union provide aid? (The Soviet Union provides aid to other countries—such as about \$4 billion to Cuba every year.)
3. Distribute **Student Handout #11—Aid to Developing Nations** and discuss the different types of aid the United States gives to developing countries. Then, focus the discussion by asking students to examine Part II of the handout. Does any of the information surprise them? What category of foreign aid do students think should be the largest? Why? Ask students what

they think the criteria should be for determining which nations receive U.S. aid—those nations in need or only those nations who support democracy and human rights? Encourage debate among students who disagree.

4. Write "U.S. Foreign Aid—Pro and Con" at the top center of the board and divide the board into "pro" and "con" halves. Then, ask students to describe what they think are the pros and cons of foreign aid. Briefly list them on the board. Responses may include the following:

Pro

- Grants allow the recipient countries to buy much-needed equipment and services.
- Loans finance basic development projects, such as dams, communication and transportation projects, and health programs.
- Technical assistance is an ideal form of help because people in developing countries are trained to complete projects by themselves rather than having the projects done for them.
- Food aid helps to fight worldwide hunger. It helps U.S. farmers while also helping the needy of the world.
- Foreign aid promotes peace and the security of the United States by winning friends and allies overseas.
- Development with U.S. financial assistance will result in promoting democracy and human rights.

Con

- Grants usually require that equipment and services be purchased in the United States. Developing countries resent the fact that the United States—and not they—usually decide how the grant money is to be used.
- Projects financed by foreign aid may be unneeded and could displace thousands of people while altering the traditional lifestyle of many more.
- Technical assistance is only as good as the people who are chosen to provide it. Selecting the right people, coordinating and determining their responsibilities, and even selecting a project are complex matters.
- Food aid is not given away, but usually sold on credit. Recipient governments must sell it to people who can afford it; the result is that the poor often stay hungry.
- Military aid to foreign countries helps to arm governments that are often at odds with their neighbors. Military aid works against peace by giving arms and equipment to nations in the Third World that are traditional enemies, thereby possibly promoting conflict.

- Foreign aid is a waste of U.S. taxpayers' dollars—dollars that would be better spent at home.
 - In the past, some nations who have received U.S. foreign aid have turned against the United States in foreign affairs. If they are going to "bite the hand that feeds them," they should not receive U.S. aid.
5. Conclude by asking students if they think U.S. foreign aid programs are good or bad and why. Based on the information they received in this activity, what should be the goals of U.S. foreign aid programs? Possible answers may include:
- ending hunger and poverty
 - improving the standard of living
 - developing industry
 - teaching people to help themselves
 - helping countries defend themselves
 - providing support for America's political point of view
 - promoting the best interests of the United States
 - encouraging democracy and social reform
 - promoting peace

Could any of the goals help to strengthen U.S. national security? If so, which ones? Could any of the goals hurt U.S. national security? If so, which ones? Should U.S. national security be a factor in determining who gets aid? Why or why not?

Additional Suggestions

1. Have students investigate activities of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund and prepare a case study of a project funded by either of the institutions. Ask them to present their findings to the rest of the class.
2. Urge students to write letters to one of their members of Congress either favoring or opposing foreign aid appropriations. Ask them to read their letters in class. They may send their letters to the following addresses:

The Honorable (Senator's name)
Senate Office Building
Washington, DC 20510

The Honorable (Representative's name)
House Office Building
Washington, DC 20515

Ask students who send letters to share with the class any response they may get from their member of Congress.

THE POLITICS OF FOOD

According to many experts, hunger and starvation are problems created by people. Statistics show that the world is able to produce enough food to feed everyone, yet at least one in eight people is hungry. There are a variety of causes that keep food from people who need it most, ranging from political turmoil such as civil war to environmental problems such as natural disasters and drought. The following activity focuses on world hunger and examines some possible solutions to this problem.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Compare and contrast perceptions of the causes and effects of hunger.
2. Identify areas of the world where hunger and starvation are prevalent.
3. List seven causes of hunger using Africa as a case study.
4. Describe approaches to solving the problem of hunger.

Procedure

1. Distribute **Student Handout #12—Perceptions of World Hunger**. Give students a few minutes to respond to the statements. Then read each statement and ask students to reveal their answers by raising their hands. Discuss their responses as you proceed through the list. Then, ask students if they have ever seen advertisements or special events on television about world hunger. What is usually being asked for? (Money) Explain that the problem of world hunger is very complex and cannot be solved simply by donating money.
2. Next, distribute **Student Handout #13—Seven Reasons Why Africans Go Hungry**. Allow students a few minutes to read the handout or ask individuals to read aloud in class with everyone following along. After reading the article, have students reread the statements from **Student Handout #12** and respond a second time to the statements about hunger based on the information they have just learned. Discuss **Student Handout #13** and their

second responses to **Student Handout #12**. Did any students change their opinions? Why? Point out that this article specifically relates to hunger in Africa but is accurate in pointing out causes of hunger typical in other parts of the world. What do students think are the causes of hunger in Latin America? In Asia? How might hunger affect the political and economic stability of these countries or the region?

3. Explain to students that there is no simple answer to ending world hunger. On the board, list the seven causes of hunger from **Student Handout #13** and ask students to brainstorm solutions to each of the problems listed. Write their responses on the board under the appropriate heading. Review past attempts to alleviate hunger (reserve food stocks, food-for-work programs, pre-planning for emergencies, and so forth). Identify support organizations, such as Save the Children and CARE, which collect money and volunteer to help the hungry become self-reliant. Ask if students know of any other such groups. Which approach do they think would help most in the short term and which would help most in the long term? Is there any solution that will permanently solve the problem of hunger?
4. Conclude by asking students how they think the problem of hunger in many developing nations is linked to peace and security issues. Is a nation truly at peace and secure within its borders if its people are hungry and poverty exists?

Additional Suggestions

1. Ask students to choose one of the solutions to hunger that the class brainstormed. Then, have them write an essay in which they answer each of the following questions.
 1. Is the solution workable?
 2. Will it help hunger in the short or long term?
 3. What are the advantages of this solution?
 4. What are the disadvantages of this solution?

Ask for volunteers to read their essays in class. Allow students to respond to them in a class discussion.

2. Divide the class into groups of three or four and give each group a copy of the following case study. Ask the groups to design an approach to solve the hunger problem of Shaka and his family. Tell students they must be able to defend their ideas as workable solutions. Students will probably need to look at both short-term, direct solutions to Shaka's problem in addition to long-term, more general solutions.

Case Study. Shaka now lives in a refugee camp with his mother, aunt, and three siblings in Mozambique. Before moving to the camp, Shaka's family owned a small plot of land, which his father and uncle farmed. It provided the family with food during the short growing season, but each year fewer crops could be harvested due to soil depletion. Seven months ago, Shaka's father and uncle were killed by rebel troops. Although his family could have remained in their village, they chose to move to the camp in search of food and jobs. Shaka has found some work in the city but does not earn enough to feed his family. Unfortunately, the rebels have moved into the area and only sporadic shipments of food are coming to the camp because the government is withholding food to force the rebels out.

TEACHER BACKGROUND NOTES

Discussion points for Student Handout #10

1. The following statistics tend to be good indicators of the health of the people in a country:
 - rate of population increase
 - age distribution
 - life expectancy
 - average family size
 - average per capita GNP
 - percent of undernourished people
 - persons per hospital bed and adult literacy rate
2. The following statistics reflect the gap between North and South:
 - annual rate of population increase
 - percentage of population under age fifteen
 - average per capita GNP
 - persons per hospital bed and adult literacy rate
3. Yes. For example, persons per hospital bed and the high literacy rate in the Soviet Union may lead one to believe the Soviet standard of living is higher than Japan or the United States, when in fact, it is not. Another example is the percentage of

undernourished people in Asia. There are few, if any, undernourished people in Japan, so this is highly misleading.

4. Possible answers include that in comparison to First and Second World countries, the Third World is characterized by a high birth rate, a large number of young people, a much lower life expectancy, larger families, and a high percentage of poor and undernourished people.

CHAPTER 4 DEMOCRACY: THE ROAD TO PEACE?

Recent democratic movements in Eastern Europe and Central America have had a profound effect on international relations. Dictators have fallen and free elections have been held in countries that just a few years ago were among the world's most oppressed. But does the global democratic movement of 1989-90 mean that the world is a more "peaceful" place? In this chapter, students are asked whether democracy is the road to peace. The activities raise provocative questions: What is the relationship between democracy and economic freedom? Is democracy an easy form of government to make work? Why might it be difficult to introduce democracy in some countries? Is the rapid rate of change in many countries a threat to global peace and stability? In the first activity, students define democracy and identify many of its features. The second activity examines Central America and U.S. involvement there. In the final activity, students read and analyze the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.

ACTIVITIES

THE DEMOCRATIC MOVEMENT

In March 1990, President Vaclav Havel of Czechoslovakia addressed a joint session of the U.S. Congress. In a stirring speech, he made reference to Thomas Jefferson's words in the Declaration of Independence, that "governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed."

Havel explained that as the totalitarian system of the Soviet Union and its satellites breaks down, these nations will look forward to democracy, independence, and peace. He said, "Perhaps . . . your boys will no longer have to stand on guard for freedom in Europe. . . . The main thing is . . . that these revolutionary changes will enable us to escape the . . . bipolar view of the world and to enter at last into an era . . . in which all of us, large and small . . . will be able to create what . . . President Lincoln called 'the family of men.'"

This activity focuses on why oppressed people around the world look toward democracy. It also examines the fact that instituting democracy will not be easy and that rapid changes may threaten the very peace everyone seeks.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define democracy and list basic features common to democratic nations.
2. Identify countries that have been influenced by the democratic movement of 1989-90.
3. Evaluate the health of democracy in the United States today.
4. Identify problems of introducing a democratic system.
5. Hypothesize on the relationship between democracy and capitalism.
6. Compare rapid change to slow, evolutionary change.

Procedure

1. Write "democracy" on the board. Then, ask students to call out basic features common to democratic nations. List their responses on the board. (The list will probably include items such as free elections, majority rule, multiple political parties, government based on a constitution, and so forth.) After a complete list has been compiled, briefly discuss some of the features of democracy. Emphasize the difficulties even Americans have in making democracy work, despite more than 200 years of experience. Do students think Americans are apathetic about democracy? Why or why not? Why are voter turnouts in U.S. elections so low? Should the United States have more than two political parties? Do students think democracy is an efficient form of government, able to meet the needs of the people while providing the nation with peace and security? Do they think that democracy ensures peace? Why or why not?
2. Explain to students that people all over the world presently are struggling to win freedoms similar to those enjoyed in the United States. Distribute **Student Handout #14—Ripples of the Democratic Revolution**. Review the instructions at the top of the handout and give students adequate time to complete the work. (Answers to the review questions are located in **Teacher Background Notes** at the end of this chapter.)
3. When everyone is finished with the handout, use a wall map to locate the countries and cities mentioned. Discuss events mentioned on the handout and ask students to volunteer their answers to the review questions. Continue the discussion by

asking why it might be difficult to introduce democracy in the nations identified on the map. Possible answers might include:

- Lack of experience with democracy.
 - Voters seem united in rejecting the communist system, but little else. For example, a swarm of new protest-based political parties have formed—forty-one in East Germany, fifty-three in Hungary, and fifty-one in Czechoslovakia.
 - Last free elections were held forty to sixty years ago.
 - Reform is slow—conditions are likely to get worse before they get better, and people may not be patient enough to wait.
 - Nationalism is strong. Under communism, ethnic feuds were suppressed; under democracy, traditional ethnic conflicts are reappearing and threaten the fabric of nations such as the Soviet Union, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia.
4. Next, write "capitalism" on the board and ask students to call out words, terms, and phrases they associate with capitalism. Write down their responses as you go along. Then, ask them to define capitalism. Is capitalism a necessary condition for democracy? Are there democratic nations that have socialist economies? Explain to the class that some countries may be described as social democracies, where private ownership exists, but there is a strong emphasis on narrowing the income distribution gap and the government owns and operates some industries. (Sweden, Denmark, and Israel are examples.)
 5. Conclude by asking how new democracies around the world can balance nationalism with democracy, economic reform with social stability, the need for strong government in a time of disorder with a government accountable to its people. Is the rapid rate of change a greater threat to peace and stability than slow, evolutionary changes? Why or why not? How long will it take to establish democracy in these countries? Could these countries go back to dictatorship? Should the United States help them? If so, how? If not, why?

Additional Suggestions

1. The map activity in **Student Handout #14** could be ongoing. As students hear and read about further developments around the world, have them report back to the class what is happening and where it is happening. Students can construct a large map to be posted and marked up as world events proceed.
2. Ask students to clip newspaper articles about the new democracies around the world and pin the articles under appropriate headings on a bulletin board.

CENTRAL AMERICA: REGION IN CONFLICT

In recent years, the nations of Central America have often made front-page news. Revolution and terrorism have, at times, transformed El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama into key battlegrounds.

What factors are responsible for this political instability? Some people argue that communist infiltration is the main factor. Others believe the turmoil is the result of heavy-handed meddling by the United States and attempts by those in power to preserve the status quo.

Since 1980, the United States has been drawn deeply into Central American affairs. The United States began providing military aid to El Salvador in 1980 and a year later sent the first U.S. military advisers there. In Nicaragua, the United States gave aid to an antigovernment rebel army called the *contras*. U.S. involvement in Central America became a major foreign policy issue about which many questions were raised. Can and should the United States promote democracy in the Western Hemisphere? Is it possible to transplant democratic values to other societies? Are democratic neighbors necessary to protect the national interests and national security of the United States? Such questions are the focus of this activity.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Describe the kinds of governments that now exist or recently existed in Central America.
2. Identify the Sandinistas and *contras* in Nicaragua and the groups that supported each.
3. List the basic assumptions on which U.S. foreign policy in Central America is based.
4. Analyze the objectives of U.S. foreign policy in Central America.
5. Discuss the successes and failures of U.S. policy in Central America.

Procedure

1. Tell students that they are going to do a word association activity. Ask them to write down the first three things that come to mind when you say "Central America." Make a list of their responses on the board. Explain to the class that since the late 1970s, the region has been in almost constant turmoil and an area of great concern to the U.S. government. Then, distribute **Student Handout #15—Central America: America's Troubled Neighbors** and explain that the handout provides background

information on Central America, specifically Nicaragua. Allow the class enough time to read the handout—or ask students to take turns reading it aloud in class. They should complete the review questions when they are finished reading.

2. Lead a class discussion based on the questions for review at the end of the handout. (Answers are provided in **Teacher Background Notes** at the end of this chapter.) Encourage students to ask questions about Central America and U.S. policy there. Focus the discussion by asking students what they think has been the primary motive behind U.S. involvement in Central America. Has it been to promote peace? To promote democracy? To protect U.S. interests? To ensure national security? Has the Reagan/Bush policy in Central America been a success or a failure? Why?

(You might want to point out that on one hand, much of the fighting has stopped: a government more favorable to the United States has been elected in Nicaragua, leftist influence has been reduced, and Soviet influence diminished. But, on the other hand, thousands of people have died, millions of dollars have been spent, widespread suffering has occurred, and the standard of living has declined.)

3. Conclude the activity by pointing out that the United States has spent millions of dollars in Central America, yet the region is still troubled. Should the United States continue to spend money and devote so much effort to the region? Do students think that communism in Central America poses a threat to the United States? Why or why not? What should be the role of the United States in the region? What will it take to bring peace and prosperity to Central America?

Additional Suggestions

1. Much of the blame for the trouble in Central America has been placed on Fidel Castro and his communist government in Cuba. Have students investigate and report on Castro and his role in Central America. Discuss their findings in class. Ask them to speculate on how conditions in Central America may change if Castro lost power in Cuba.
2. Organize a classroom debate around the question of U.S. involvement in Central America. For example, your students could debate the statement: "The United States should do whatever is necessary to keep friendly governments in power in the countries of Central America." Or, perhaps, they could debate the U.S. invasion of Panama in 1990.

Choose two teams of debaters and a moderator to keep the debate orderly and moving along. When the debate is finished, ask the rest of the class which side was most convincing. Who won? Did the debate change anyone's mind?

HUMAN RIGHTS

When Jimmy Carter became president in 1977, he was determined to revise U.S. foreign policy to emphasize human rights. He believed the United States should take the lead in creating a world society reflecting basic human ideals. Carter criticized both enemies and allies for human rights violations.

Jimmy Carter was not the first president to stress human rights. Woodrow Wilson and Harry Truman both made human rights a cornerstone of their foreign policies following World War I and World War II respectively. Recently, Presidents Ronald Reagan and George Bush have sought to balance the human rights issue with other issues and to downplay its priority, but both supported human rights activists in the Soviet Union, South Africa, and other nations. This activity explores the concept of human rights and the role it plays in issues of peace and security by focusing on the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define human rights.
2. Analyze the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.
3. Explain why the ideals of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* are difficult to attain.

Procedure

1. Introduce the class to the concept of human rights. Define human rights as those rights that are based on the principle that all human beings by nature have certain rights *as human beings*—they are part of being human. These rights are higher than any political system. In fact, they do not even come from the government and as such cannot be taken away by the government. Ask students to think of examples of human rights. Brainstorm for a few minutes, writing responses on the board and then briefly discussing each one.
2. Explain to students that in the United States, concern for human rights is one of the foundations of our democracy. Write on the

board the following quote from the U.S. *Declaration of Independence*.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are . . . endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Then, lead a discussion about the quote, asking students who wrote it and where it came from. What did Jefferson mean by "unalienable rights"? Compare Jefferson's list of rights with the list of human rights students generated in the brainstorming session. Are there any similarities? Differences? Conclude this part of the activity by asking students if the United States as a nation has upheld Jefferson's rights. Point out that the U.S. record on human rights is not unblemished. Ask students to give examples of human rights abuses in U.S. history. (These might include treatment of Native Americans, slavery, racial segregation, internment of Japanese-Americans during World War II, treatment of immigrant groups.)

3. Next, explain to the class that in December 1948, the newly established United Nations adopted its *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. Distribute **Student Handout #16—United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights**. After students have had time to read the declaration and complete the exercises and questions at the end of the handout, begin a discussion based on their responses. When discussing the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, point out that applying the ideals listed in the declaration is difficult.
4. Finally, distribute **Student Handout #17—Weighing the Options: You Decide**. Allow students adequate time to respond to each situation and jot down their options. Then, discuss student responses. The emphasis in the discussion should be more on raising consciousness than on getting the "right" answer. Ask students what conclusions they can draw from this exercise.

Additional Suggestions

1. Have students research and report on the efforts of the individuals cited below to further the cause of human rights and peace. Students may find others not on this list on whom they wish to report.
 - **Andrei Sakharov**—gifted Soviet scientist, contributor to the creation of the hydrogen bomb, and political dissident.

- **Nelson Mandela**—leader of South Africa's African National Congress (ANC) who was recently released from prison after more than twenty years.
 - **Martin Luther King, Jr.**—charismatic U.S. civil rights leader who stressed nonviolence but was assassinated in 1968.
 - **Jacobo Timerman**—publisher and editor of the Buenos Aires newspaper *La Opinion* who was abducted by the Argentine army in April 1977, tortured in prison, and exiled to Israel.
 - **Kim Dae Jung**—South Korea's best-known advocate for human rights who has spent years in prison, has been placed under house arrest, and was sent into exile for his beliefs.
 - **Benigno Aquino**—opponent of Ferdinand Marcos in the Philippines who spent nearly eight years in jail and three years in exile before being assassinated upon his return to Manila.
 - **Jorge Valls**—poet, teacher, and student activist who survived twenty years in Fidel Castro's Cuban prisons.
 - **Adam Michnik**—Polish historian and literary critic who helped found KOR (the Workers Defense Committee), which inspired the people's movement known as Solidarity.
 - **Dr. Joel Filartiga**—a physician in Paraguay who long opposed dictatorial President Alfred Stroessner.
 - **Natan Sharansky**—one of the Soviet Union's most prominent "refuseniks."
2. Ask students to write a one-page reaction to the following quotation by Martin Luther King, Jr.:

Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere.

Ask for volunteers to read their papers in class.

TEACHER BACKGROUND NOTES

Answers to Student Handout #14:

1. Eastern Europe. Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Poland, Romania, Yugoslavia. Students may also mention the Soviet Union.
2. China. Chinese police and soldiers routed demonstrators of the prodemocracy movement and cracked down on its leaders.
3. Nicaragua
4. Algeria, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, and South Africa

5. Several Soviet republics are expressing a desire to break away from the union including Armenia, Estonia, Georgia, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldavia, and others. Political parties have been formed and elections are contested. Soviet citizens are being allowed more freedom of expression.

Answers to Student Handout #15:

1. The people of Spanish birth and descent made up the ruling class, and everyone else belonged to the lower class. Even today this class system persists with a small group at the top who live very well while the vast majority are poorly fed and poorly housed.
2. There have been three types of governments in Central America in recent years:
 - elected democracies
 - rightist military governments
 - leftist military governments
3. Poverty, illiteracy, social stratification, and human rights abuses.
4. Sandino organized a guerrilla army that fought for seven years against the American presence in Nicaragua.
5. The Sandinistas are a group who united against the rule of the Somoza family. They were made up of landless poor, but included people in business, the press, and the church. In 1979, they overthrew dictatorial president Anastasio Somoza.
6. The *contras* were dissatisfied revolutionaries and former National Guardsmen who fought to overthrow Nicaragua's Sandinista government. The United States backed the *contras* because it believed the Sandinista government had backed down from its promise of democracy, had established a Marxist dictatorship, and had threatened the security of neighboring countries.
7. They argued that the millions of dollars in aid did nothing to further democracy and merely escalated the conflict.
8. The Arias Plan was a peace initiative calling for an end to military aid to all insurgents, promotion of multiparty democratic political systems, cease-fire and amnesties, and dialogue between governments and opposition groups. The plan was rejected by President Reagan, who continued to support the *contras*.

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9. U.S. policy assumes that revolutionary movements are Marxist inspired and if the rebels took power they would align themselves with the Soviet Union and Cuba, thereby threatening American economic and security interests in the region.
 10. In 1989, the United States sent troops to Panama to oust military strongman Manuel Noriega and arrest him on drug trafficking charges. President Bush justified the action by citing U.S. interests in the Panama Canal, protection of U.S. citizens living in Panama, and restoration of a freely elected government that had been disallowed by Noriega.

CHAPTER 5 THE GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT: A COMMON TRUST

Ozone depletion, the greenhouse effect, ocean pollution. . . . The list of environmental problems facing the nations of the world grows longer every year. It has become apparent that most of these problems cannot be solved by one nation alone. They are global problems, requiring global solutions. This chapter points out that environmental issues are closely related to security concerns. In the first activity, students examine the concept of scarcity and the impact it can have on a nation's relations with other countries. The second activity examines the feasibility of international cooperation in solving environmental problems by focusing on the pollution of the Danube River, which flows through eight countries. And finally, Bangladesh is examined as a case study of the effects of overpopulation on the global environment and the impact it may have on world peace and security.

ACTIVITIES

NATURAL RESOURCES AND NATIONAL SECURITY

A nation's security depends greatly on its ability to acquire certain resources. It forms its policies accordingly. An important resource for U.S. national security is oil. Oil fuels the U.S. economy and contributes greatly to American defense. The United States imports almost 50 percent of its oil supply, making it vulnerable to the economies and foreign policies of oil-exporting nations.

In the following activity, students will explore their positions on the issues of resource management and national security. They will examine the role of government in providing accessibility to one of the nation's most needed resources—oil—and the ramifications of expanded offshore oil drilling.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Identify their positions concerning government involvement in acquiring resources.
2. Define scarcity.
3. State reasons supporting or opposing offshore drilling.

Procedures

1. Write the following three statements on the board and introduce the activity by asking students to respond to each. Give them a few minutes to jot down their responses.
 - The U.S. government should do everything possible to assure the nation's access to all resources that are necessary for national security.
 - The fact that the United States imports almost half its oil constitutes a threat to its security.
 - The benefits of offshore drilling outweigh the environmental risks associated with it.

After students complete their responses, lead a discussion based on their opinions. What resources do students see as being vital to national security? How might dependence on importation of these resources—such as oil—be a threat to national security? What are some of the risks associated with offshore oil drilling? (These include: spills and leaks may kill marine life or damage delicate ecosystems such as coral reefs, fires or explosions may occur on offshore platforms, commercial fisheries may be disturbed, economic livelihood of coastal communities may be threatened because of spills, and so forth.) Also, the following information should be helpful in guiding the discussion:

- Explain to students the concept of *scarcity*. Scarcity in this case refers to the idea that many nations in the world—if not all—do not have enough resources to satisfy their needs and wants. These resources could include just about anything—from food and oil to consumer goods such as refrigerators and high-tech supercomputers. What a nation has and what it wants has a tremendous impact on its relations with the rest of the world. The United States is no exception. Today the United States depends on oil for most of its energy needs, yet it has only 4 percent of the world's proven oil reserves. As a result, the United States imports 46 percent of its oil. More than 40 percent of the U.S. trade imbalance is caused by imported oil.
- The United States is the world's largest consumer of oil. U.S. oil consumption is increasing by about 2 percent a year, while domestic production is declining 6 percent. Most of the world's reserves are concentrated in the Middle East. The United States has to maintain friendly relations with the oil-producing nations of the Middle East. This reliance on Middle East oil makes many Americans uncomfortable, especially given the tensions in the area in recent years.

- Currently, Alaska's Prudhoe Bay area, North America's largest oil field, has been contributing about 20 percent of the total U.S. oil production. But that supply is beginning to diminish and is expected to be exhausted by 2005.
 - Since the discovery of oil in northern Alaska, no substantial domestic oil sources have been discovered or developed, partly because the relatively low price of oil gives oil companies no incentive for the risky and expensive business of oil exploration.
 - According to a recent *New York Times*/CBS News poll, 55 percent of the respondents said the risks of offshore drilling outweighed the benefits. In 1981, only 25 percent agreed. Congressional support for offshore drilling has diminished, especially in the wake of the 1989 *Exxon Valdez* oil spill in Alaska's Prince William Sound.
2. When discussion ends, distribute **Student Handout #18—Offshore Oil Drilling: The Debate**. Allow students time to read the opinions and complete the exercises and questions that follow. After students complete the work, ask them to share their responses. Did any of them change the position they held at the beginning of the activity? Which arguments were most persuasive?
 3. Conclude by asking students how the issue of acquiring resources relates to peace and national security. How might national security be jeopardized if resources are not readily available? How can nations reduce their vulnerability to being denied access to resources? How far should the United States go in guaranteeing its access to oil?

Additional Suggestions

1. Organize a classroom debate concerning access to natural resources. The topic could deal with offshore drilling, protecting the Persian Gulf, or any other timely topic. Or, you may want to change the focus from oil to other resources such as water, food products, lumber, or other minerals. Choose a topic, select teams of debaters on both sides, and ask a student to be the moderator. The moderator's job is to keep the debate moving, to time the speakers, and to keep order. Follow the debate with a classroom discussion about the topic. Which side was most persuasive? Did any students change their minds after hearing the debate?
2. Have teams of interested students research and compare Carter, Reagan, and Bush administration policies related to the oil supply.

These policies differ greatly and provide insight into differing views of the relationship between resource management and national security. A spokesperson for each group can present its findings to the class.

PROBLEMS OF THE GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT

Many environmental problems demand regional solutions. Solutions can be difficult to attain if the problems affect more than one city, county, or state. But imagine the difficulties that arise when the problem affects more than one nation. Nations are usually unwilling to give up any jurisdiction over areas within their borders. Without international cooperation, however, many environmental issues cannot be successfully addressed.

In the following activity, students study the impact of pollution on the Danube River, a river that flows through—and is polluted by—eight European countries. After students investigate the problem, they will be asked to come up with a solution and analyze the ramifications of other solutions.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Describe why the rivers of Eastern Europe are polluted.
2. Explain why international cooperation is needed to clean up the rivers.
3. Identify reasons why international cooperation is often difficult to obtain.

Procedures

1. To introduce this activity, ask students to consider the condition of a river or stream in or near their community. Is it polluted? What causes the pollution? How might it be cleaned up? If it is not polluted, what keeps it clean? Does the stream flow through more than one city or state? What difficulties might this cause when trying to either clean it up or keep it clean?
2. Next, pass out **Student Handout #19—Befouled to its Romantic Depths, Danube Reaches a Turning Point**. The handout contains a map, a reading, and two sets of questions—one set of questions is to evaluate student understanding of the reading; the other is to be used for a class discussion after students have read the article and studied the map. Review students' responses on the handout and encourage all to participate in the discussion.

Additional Suggestions

1. Many environmental problems such as acid rain, air pollution, ozone depletion, and deforestation affect more than one nation. Many experts agree that to effectively address most major environmental issues, international cooperation is absolutely essential. Have students select an environmental issue and identify possible international solutions. Have them present their solutions to the class. Urge the rest of the students to question the pros and cons of the various solutions.
2. Conduct a role-playing activity in which two groups of students represent diplomats from two countries currently disagreeing about an environmental issue. For example, the United States and Mexico are at odds over the condition of the New River, which flows from Mexico into California. Or, Canada has expressed concern over the damage done to Canadian forests by the acid rain produced by U.S. industries. Select an appropriate topic and have each side research the problem and develop their arguments. Then, bring the two groups together to roleplay the meeting, presenting their respective country's case and trying to work out a solution.

POPULATION, POLLUTION, AND POLITICS

The world's population is growing at an increasingly rapid rate. Today, there are more than 5 billion people living on earth. By 1995, there will be 6 billion. Experts estimate that by 2087, 10 billion people will be living on the planet. Most of this growth is occurring in the developing world, where governments are least able to handle the financial burden of rapid industrial development and resource conservation. The result is large-scale environmental damage.

In this activity, students will examine Bangladesh—one of the most densely populated nations on earth—to understand the relationships among overpopulation, the environment, and world peace and security.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Draw conclusions based on statistical information.
2. Discuss a cause-effect relationship between rapid population growth and environmental damage.
3. State reasons both supporting and opposing international involvement in pollution control.

Procedures

1. Introduce the activity by placing three chairs in front of the room. Tell the class that each chair represents 50,000 square miles, for a total of 150,000 square miles—the approximate area of California. Ask three volunteers to sit on the chairs. Each student represents 10 million people for a total of 30 million—approximately the population of California. Ask the three if they are comfortable. Tell them that they are representing the population density of the most heavily populated U.S. state.

Now, tell the students seated in the chairs that they are going to represent the population density of Bangladesh, with a population of approximately 112 million. Therefore, you will need eight more volunteers—a total of eleven—to sit on the three chairs. Once the eleven students arrange themselves, ask them how comfortable they are now. Explain that there is still one problem: California is three times larger in land area than Bangladesh, so they need to remove two of the chairs. Then ask the eleven students to try to arrange themselves on the one remaining chair! They now represent the population density of Bangladesh. How comfortable are they?

Discuss the problems that might exist in a nation as densely populated as Bangladesh. Have students brainstorm some of these problems, listing their responses on the board. Save this list for future reference.

2. Show the location of Bangladesh on a wall map. Then, distribute **Student Handout #20—Population Problems**. Allow students time to read the information and study the statistics. In groups of three or four, have them answer the questions on the handout. When they have finished, lead a discussion based on students' answers. First ask students to list the problems stated in the handout that affect Bangladesh. How do these compare with their earlier list? Next, compare the answers from the different groups, encouraging students to discuss and debate among themselves. Focus on question #5 of the handout. What are some possible solutions presented by the students? Are they feasible? Why or why not?

Additional Suggestions

1. Have interested students use an almanac or atlas to locate nations that are experiencing rapid population growth. Students can then choose a nation from the list and research its environmental status. Have them report their findings to the class. If you have new Americans in your class, they may want to report on their former countries and any problems of overpopulation and pollution there.

2. Ask students to write a one-page response to the following statement:

Because scientists believe that destruction of rain forests is causing global warming, the United States should use economic pressure on Brazil to force it to stop cutting down great tracts of its Amazon rain forests.

Students can either agree or disagree with the statement, but any argument should be backed by factual information rather than emotion. Ask for volunteers to read essays in class. Discuss each essay after it has been presented.

CHAPTER 6 THE WORLD ECONOMY

The world's economic landscape has changed considerably in the last twenty-five years. The United States and Western Europe, once considered the economic giants of the world, are increasingly being challenged by nations that were once considered noncompetitive, such as Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan. Changes in the world economy—and their impact on global peace and security—are the focus of this chapter. The first activity examines the concept of interdependence and how it affects world economic decisions. The second activity uses U.S.-Japanese relations as an example of interdependence, and allows students to look at the large U.S.-Japan trade deficit and decide whether it is a threat to national security. In the final activity, the causes and effects of the debt crisis are examined.

ACTIVITIES

ECONOMIC INTERDEPENDENCE

A decision made in any one sector of an economy can, and usually does, affect other parts of that economy. The impact may be anything from a small ripple to a major tidal wave. This economic interdependence applies to local, state, national, and international economies. As the range of technology and communication expands, so does economic interdependence.

In the following activity, students address issues related to economic interdependence. They examine the meaning of economic interdependence and the way it works. Students also will discuss whether or not increasing economic interdependence makes the world safer.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Define economic interdependence.
2. Give examples illustrating economic interdependence.
3. Evaluate positive and negative ramifications of international economic interdependence.

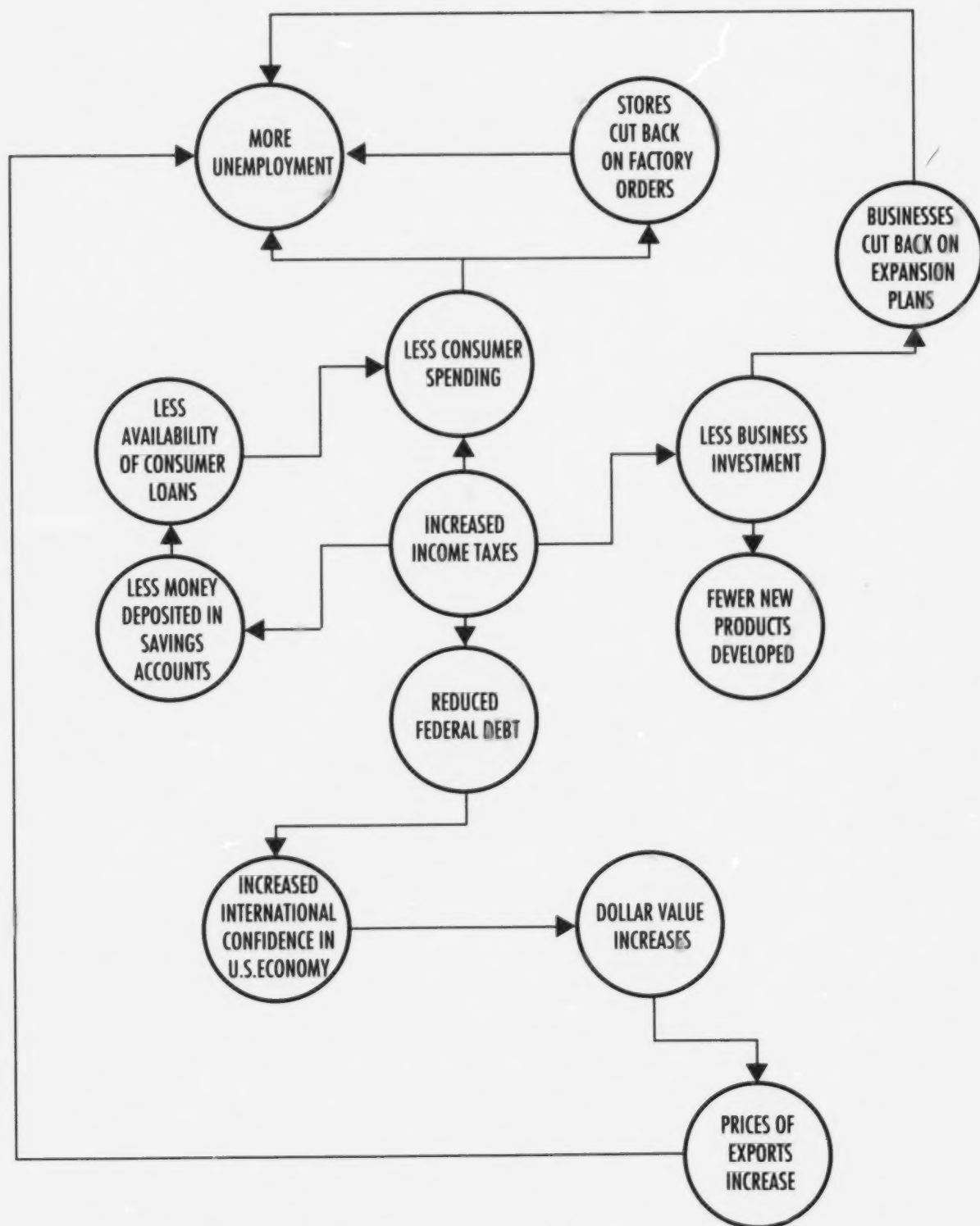
Procedures

1. Introduce this activity by asking students to carefully look around the room and name the objects they see that were produced in another country. They should see such items as watches, electronic equipment, clothing, and so forth. Ask students why they think they or their school bought these imports. After discussing consumer demand, lower prices, advertising, and so forth, write the word "interdependence" on the board and ask students to define it. They should mention that interdependence refers to the fact that in today's world, no nation acts in isolation: all nations depend on one another for goods and services.
2. After discussing the idea of interdependence, tell students that they are going to create two maps showing economic interdependence. The first will be done by the whole class and the second will be done in small groups. You will need several large (at least 3' by 3') pieces of paper—one for each group. Perhaps your school can provide you with several long strips of wrapping paper that you can divide into squares.
3. Complete the first interdependence map as a class. In the middle of the board, write and circle the phrase "increased income taxes." Then, ask students to state what effect they think an increase in taxes would have on the U.S. economy. For example, one student may say "less consumer spending" while another may say "reduced federal deficit." As students answer, write down and circle their best ideas, distributing them around the central idea. Connect the student responses to the central phrase with an arrow (see sample on page 65).

After you have written down several of their best ideas, pick one and discuss what effect it may have on the economy. Once again, jot down and circle the best responses and connect them with arrows where appropriate. For example, in discussing "less consumer spending" one student may say it will cause more unemployment. Write and circle "more unemployment" on the board and connect it to "less consumer spending" with an arrow. Proceed through all of the original responses, writing down any additional ideas that are appropriate and connecting all related ideas with arrows. Continue this pattern until students understand how an "interdependence map" is made.

4. At this point, divide the class into groups of three or four and distribute a large sheet of paper to each. Assign each group a different subject and allow them time to proceed making an interdependence map. When all groups are finished, pin their maps on the wall and let the class examine each one.

Interdependence map



Choose topics for your groups' maps that you think would stimulate discussion. Here are some samples:

- United States has a bumper grain crop
- Europe has a crop failure
- Teamsters union goes on nationwide strike
- OPEC raises oil prices dramatically
- U.S. budget deficits increase
- Americans double their purchase of foreign cars
- earthquake devastates Southern California
- Soviet Union allows smaller republics to break away
- civil war breaks out in Mexico
- United States imposes high protective tariffs on consumer goods
- U.S. defense budget is cut in half

5. Conclude by asking students to discuss the following questions:

- How does interdependence affect world economic decisions?
- What advantages and disadvantages does international interdependence have for a national economy?
- How might interdependence affect world peace and security?

Additional Suggestions

1. An interesting way to assess student understanding of economic interdependence is to discuss hypothetical situations. In other words, ask, "What might have happened if . . . ?" Here are some examples:

How might life differ if:

- The Mississippi River flowed north instead of south?
- California had remained under control of Mexico?
- The United States halted all immigration?
- The United States had not helped Germany and Japan rebuild after World War II?
- The climate of the United States was similar to the climate of Canada?

Remind students to consider the impact of each situation on their local area, the nation, and the world. Ask them to write a response to one or more of the "what ifs." Read their responses to the rest of the class and discuss.

2. Organize a debate around the following statement:

The United States, through conservation, development of domestic sources, and purchase from other nations, could get along without oil from the Middle East.

Therefore, the United States should withdraw its military forces from the Middle East and not worry about events in that part of the world.

Select debate teams to argue for each side and a moderator to preside. Discuss the issue with the whole class after the debate has been completed.

ECONOMIC CONFLICT

Many of the products people use everyday come from other countries. As a result, most countries today depend on international trade. In some cases, a country finds it cheaper to import a product than to manufacture it. The key to trade, then, is specialization. Each nation generally produces what it is best suited to produce and trades for the goods it cannot produce.

Although international trade can bring many benefits, some people object to it because foreign competition can be harmful to particular domestic industries or workers.

The following activity focuses on how economic conflicts might threaten peaceful relations among nations. It uses Japanese-American trade to show how economic issues can sometimes drive a wedge between two longtime allies.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Discuss the U.S.-Japanese trade relationship.
2. Explain how economic issues have a potential for conflict.
3. List tools nations use to restrict trade.

Procedure

1. Begin by telling students that a February 1990 *New York Times*/CBS News poll indicated that the vast majority of Americans interviewed had generally positive feelings toward the Japanese, but that the percentage of Americans who said their feelings were "generally unfriendly" has increased dramatically. In 1985, only 8 percent of Americans perceived Japan as "unfriendly," but the number increased to 19 percent in 1989 and 25 percent in the February poll. Ask students to suggest reasons for this sharp increase.
2. Distribute **Student Handout #21—U.S.-Japan Trade Issues**. Ask students to answer the questions, but to leave the comment column blank for now. After everyone has completed the

handout, discuss each item, asking students to write in the comment column as discussion proceeds. (See **Teacher Background Notes** at the end of this chapter for answers and additional information.) Were students generally negative about Japan? Why or why not? How much of the negative feelings toward Japan were based on facts and how much could be considered "Japan-bashing"?

3. Continue the discussion by asking students what they think the term "Japan-bashing" means. Explain that many Americans and U.S. policymakers believe that Japan trades unfairly, which causes a persistent trade imbalance between the two nations. Some think that the trade deficit would improve if Japan removed some of its restrictions on American products. They claim, for example, that American supercomputers, computer chips, space satellites, and forest products are competitive in other countries but not in Japan because the Japanese will not allow U.S. companies to import these products. Some Americans favor retaliation by the United States to force Japan to "trade fairly." What are students' attitudes about Japan's trade practices? Do they think Japan is being unfair? Do they think Japan's trade practices cause the trade imbalance between the two countries? Should the United States retaliate? What can the United States do to deal with the trade imbalance?
4. Conclude by discussing the tools the United States could use to deal with its trade deficit with Japan. List the following tools on the board and discuss each as you go along:
 - *Tariffs.* (Tariffs are taxes placed on imported goods to increase their price in the domestic market. Tariffs are described as protective when their purpose is to raise the price of foreign goods so high that consumers will increase their consumption of domestically produced goods.)
 - *Import quotas.* (Import quotas specify the maximum amount of a particular foreign good that can be imported. They are generally much more effective than tariffs in keeping out foreign goods. With such quotas, consumers can buy only so many of a particular foreign-produced good. Then they must either buy a domestic product or do without.)
 - *Licensing of importers.* (Licensing gives the government some control over the number of competing firms. By delaying the licensing process, governments may discourage foreign trade.)
 - *Inspections.* (Foreign-produced foods are often subjected to far more rigorous inspection than domestic products, detaining imported foods from getting to supermarket shelves.)
 - *Voluntary quotas.* (For many years Japanese automobile producers "voluntarily" restricted the number of cars they sold in the United States. Thus consumers had fewer choices,

and some became more likely to buy a domestically produced car.)

- *Total ban.* (Sometimes the government orders a total ban on the import or export of a particular product. Such embargoes are often politically motivated. For example, in 1980, President Jimmy Carter imposed a grain embargo on the Soviet Union to protest Soviet actions in Afghanistan.)
- *Trade negotiations.* (Two nations can agree to try to negotiate policies designed to reduce a trade deficit. Each side attempts to come up with compromises that both sides can live with.)

After students are familiar with each tool, ask them what they think U.S. policymakers should do about the trade deficit with Japan. What effect would each tool have in combating the trade deficit with Japan? How would the tools affect U.S. relations with Japan? How would the use of certain tools affect national security?

Additional Suggestions

1. Ask students to pretend they are members of Congress. A bill that would severely restrict the import of Japanese cars to America has been introduced. Have them prepare and deliver a persuasive speech either favoring or opposing the bill. Their arguments should be based on facts. Urge them to look for local issues that could be affected under such legislation.
2. Have interested students investigate the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and subsequent international trade agreements to show how the international community is trying to ease the potential for economic conflicts. Ask them to prepare a report to present to the class.

THIRD WORLD DEBT

One of the biggest problems threatening the stability of Third World countries is their huge external debt—money borrowed from foreign banks and governments. Third World debt has more than doubled from nearly \$5 trillion in 1979 to over \$1.2 trillion in 1988.

The foreign debt crisis affects developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. For example, Zaire is rich in natural resources that are in great demand in the industrialized countries and should be prosperous. Yet its external debt is about \$240 for every man, woman, and child in the country, while the per capita income is about \$127 a year. Mexico has worked hard to reduce its \$100 billion debt, which is equal to nearly two-thirds of its gross national product.

This activity focuses on Latin America to give students some background on the causes and effects of the debt crisis. Students will

recognize that the debt threatens the stability of emerging democracies, their fragile economies, and the cause of peace.

Objectives

After completing this activity, students should be able to:

1. Recognize that the United States, when it was a new country, faced many of the same problems developing countries face today.
2. Identify the causes and effects of the debt crisis.
3. Discuss how austerity and adjustment programs affect the human condition, democracy, the global environment, the global economy, and peace in general.
4. Analyze whether peace and a solution to the debt crisis are reconcilable.

Procedure

1. Begin by asking students to imagine themselves living in a developing country. The country has many natural resources but needs money to develop them. To finance expansion and development and build a network of railroads, it borrows large sums of money from overseas lenders. An economic crisis in the developing country causes several states to default on their loans. The country's national bank suspends business. Foreign banks become more cautious about lending to the developing country because they consider it unreliable and a poor credit risk. Ask students what country they think is being described. (Answer: the United States in its early history)

Point out to students that developing countries today are facing similar problems encountered by the United States in its early days—the need for capital (money) for development and reliance on foreign loans. Explain to students that this is nowhere more apparent than in Latin America. At the same time, remind students that economic problems faced by the United States 200 years ago were not exactly the same as problems facing Latin America today. The level of debt in early America was not as staggering as it is in several Latin American nations now. Neither were the international economic systems of the two eras comparable. There were more opportunities for the United States to develop economically in 1800 than there are for many indebted countries to develop in 1991.

Distribute **Student Handout #22—Latin American Debt**. Review the statistics on the handout. To put the statistics in perspective, point out that the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) blames the debt crisis for lowering the quality of life

for nearly 900 million people over the past decade and warns that the debt problem will cause the deaths of 18 million children a year by the end of the century.

2. Broaden the discussion by asking if there is any solution to the debt crisis. Explain that meetings are held regularly among officials from debtor nations, major banks, U.S. treasury officials, and representatives from the central banks of most developed countries, but that finding a solution is difficult. Should the primary concern be saving the banking industry of developed countries, or should improving the lives of people in developing countries be the top priority?

Illustrate the dilemma by pointing out that one of the solutions to the debt crisis is to ask the debtor nations to adopt austerity measures before new loans or loan restructuring can happen. These adjustment programs include cutting domestic spending for health and education services, eliminating government subsidies that keep food prices low, freezing wages, raising taxes, raising interest rates, and devaluing the debtor nation's currency. The aim of the adjustments is to reduce consumption of goods and services and increase exports so the country can sell its goods overseas, make more money, and pay off its debt.

3. Ask students what specific effects these adjustments would have on 1) the human condition, 2) the government, 3) the global environment, and 4) the global economy. Write each of these four items on the board and list student responses under the appropriate head. The ensuing discussion should bring out the points outlined below.

- *Effects on human condition.* The price of food may double overnight. In Mexico, for example, the first "adjustment program" brought a 40 percent hike in the price of tortillas and a 100 percent increase in the price of bread.

Poor people suffer more as government services are cut back. For example, in Peru, infant mortality has increased 30 percent. The standard of living drops. Mexico's inflation rate is nearly 90 percent, but wages were only allowed to increase by 25 percent, causing a sharp reduction in workers' real buying power.

- *Effects on the government.* Belt-tightening measures often arouse anger and antigovernment demonstrations. Since many Latin American countries do not have a tradition of strong constitutional government, there is often a temptation for the military to seize power or for a dictator to take advantage of widespread discontent. In Venezuela, more than 300 people died in recent riots protesting debt-related austerity measures.

- *Effects on global environment.* As debtor governments push to increase exports, more land is needed for growing export crops rather than food crops. To obtain more land, developing countries often encourage deforestation. The Brazilian rain forest, for example, is disappearing at an alarming rate. Developing countries often relax environmental controls to boost production.
- *Effects on global economy.* Third World industrialization often leads to the exploitation of workers. Workers operate under poor conditions for low wages without the protection of internationally recognized labor standards.

Developing countries are usually unable to compete against the more efficient manufacturing industries of the First World, so they try to boost agricultural commodities like corn, wheat, rice, and soybeans. This has resulted in overproduction and flooding of world markets, which drives down world prices, undermining the position of farmers everywhere.

4. Explain that because the United States and other developed nations recognize the devastating effects of austerity, they are often reluctant to ask debtor nations to implement such programs. Conclude by asking students if they can think of a solution to the debt crisis. Discuss these proposals. Are they feasible? Why or why not? Extend the discussion by asking if students think the debt crisis is a threat to world peace and stability. Why or why not? What steps can the United States take to promote peace and stability in the western hemisphere?

Additional Suggestions

1. Divide the class into small groups and have each group research how a particular Latin American country tries to cope with its debt. Each group should then be prepared to present its findings to the class.
2. Have interested students interview someone from a large commercial bank to ask about the bank's loans to Latin America or other developing regions. Or, invite a bank official to talk to your class. In either case, students should prepare a list of questions in advance. They should try to find out how much money the bank has loaned; if the loans are being serviced and the interest is being paid; if the bank expects any problems collecting the interest; what would happen to the bank if no further debt payments were made; and so forth.

TEACHER BACKGROUND NOTES

Answers to Student Handout #21

1. False. There is a large trade imbalance with Japan. The United States spends \$49 billion more on Japanese goods than Japan spends on U.S. goods. Japan's trade balance with the world dropped 19 percent in 1989.
2. False. Canada is first, Japan is second. The United States is Japan's largest trading partner.
3. True. In 1985, the prime minister asked each Japanese citizen to buy \$100 worth of American goods. Since then, there has been a gradual increase in the purchase of U.S. goods. American exports to Japan have risen 60 percent since 1986.
4. False. Eighty-four percent of all soup bought in Japan is manufactured by Knorr Soups, an American company. Gillette has captured 70 percent of the razor market, Coca Cola has 60 percent of the soft drink market, and Pampers account for 50 percent of all the diapers used in Japan.
5. True. Many Japanese associate foreign-made goods with wealth and richness. Popular items are whiskey, cigarettes, pens, chocolate, perfume, beef, and Arrow shirts.
6. True. Ninety-six percent of U.S. imports from Japan are manufactured goods, while 65 percent of Japanese imports from the United States are raw materials.
7. False. Many Japanese cars are now built in the United States. Plants in California, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Tennessee build cars with Japanese nameplates. Many U.S. car manufacturers are increasingly turning to foreign suppliers in Brazil, Korea, and Taiwan for engines, electronic components, and other parts.
8. False. Japan surpassed the United States in per capita income in 1987.
9. True. In 1989, Japan loaned \$10 billion to other nations.
10. False. In U.S. investment, the United Kingdom is first—\$101.9 billion; Japan is second—\$53 billion; and the Netherlands is third—\$49 billion. However, Japan's investments have doubled since 1986.

STUDENT HANDOUT 1 QUOTATIONS ABOUT PEACE

An unjust peace is better than a just war.

Cicero—first century B.C. Roman statesman and philosopher

Blessed are the peacemakers, for they shall be called the children of God.

Matthew 5:9—Jesus' sermon on the mount

Even war is better than miserable peace.

Tacitus—first century Roman historian

There never was a good war or a bad peace.

Benjamin Franklin—colonial American statesman and writer

To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace.

George Washington—first president of the United States

If I must choose between peace and righteousness, I choose righteousness.

Theodore Roosevelt—twenty-sixth president of the United States
and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1906

There is a price which is too great to pay for peace, and that price can be put in one word. One cannot pay the price of self-respect.

Woodrow Wilson—twenty-eighth president of the United States and
winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1919

As a woman I can't go to war, and I refuse to send anyone else.

Jeannette Rankin—member of Congress from Montana who cast the
only vote against declaring war on Japan in December 1941

Peace cannot be kept by force. It can only be achieved by understanding.

Albert Einstein—physicist and humanitarian whose theory of
relativity led to the concept of the atom

It would win for us a proud title—we would become the first aggressors
for peace.

Francis P. Matthews—secretary of the navy under Truman arguing
for a preventive war against the Soviet Union

Our capacity to retaliate must be, and is, massive in order to deter all
forms of aggression.

John Foster Dulles—secretary of state in the Eisenhower
administration

It is an unfortunate fact that we can secure peace only by preparing for war.

John F. Kennedy—thirty-fifth president of the United States

You cannot separate peace from freedom, because no one can be at peace unless he has his freedom.

Malcolm X—American civil rights activist

The ultimate weakness of violence is that it is a descending spiral, begetting the very thing it seeks to destroy. Through violence you may murder the hater, but do not murder the hate. In fact, violence merely increases the hate.

Martin Luther King, Jr.—American civil rights activist and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964

Mankind must remember that peace is not God's gift to his creatures; peace is our gift to each other.

Elie Wiesel—author, survivor of the Nazi Holocaust, and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1986

And before an order to kill that a man may give, the law of God must prevail that says, "Thou shalt not kill!" No soldier is obliged to obey an order against the law of God. No one has to fulfill an immoral law.

Archbishop Oscar Romero—Archbishop of El Salvador from 1977 to 1980

When the stakes are war and peace, we can bargain successfully only if we are strong militarily and only if we are willing to defend ourselves if necessary. We must also have a sense of unity and a national purpose in our foreign policy.

Ronald Reagan—fortieth president of the United States

Because our country is a country of teachers . . . our children go with books under their arms, not with rifles on their shoulders. We reject violence.

Oscar Arias Sanchez—former president of Costa Rica and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1987



STUDENT HANDOUT 2 ESCALATION AND DE-ESCALATION OF CONFLICT

A conflict will be more likely to escalate when:

- other people become involved in the dispute and take sides.
- one or both people feel threatened by the other.
- there is no interest or investment in maintaining the relationship, or there is a history of unproductive, negative conflict between the two parties.
- there is an increase in the acting out (indirect expression) of anger, fear, or frustration.
- there is a lack of the skills necessary for peacemaking or a lack of awareness of the skills the parties do, in fact, possess.

A conflict will decrease or de-escalate when:

- those involved focus on the problem rather than on each other.
- emotions of anger, fear, and frustration are expressed directly rather than demonstrated indirectly.
- threats are reduced or eliminated.
- the people involved have cooperated well prior to the dispute.
- needs are openly discussed.
- the people involved are able to use their peacemaking skills or receive some help in applying them.

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STUDENT HANDOUT 3 STATEMENTS ABOUT CONFLICT—AGREE OR DISAGREE?

Read each of the following statements and indicate whether you agree or disagree with it. Then, in the space below the statement, justify your position.

1. Conflicts tend to get broader by dragging in more people and more issues.

☐ AGREE

☐ DISAGREE

2. Threats make violence less likely.

☐ AGREE

☐ DISAGREE

3. Differences in power make negotiation more difficult.

☐ AGREE

☐ DISAGREE

4. Conflicts tend to become more intense and more violent.

☐ AGREE

☐ DISAGREE

5. Threats can focus attention and encourage change.

☐ AGREE

☐ DISAGREE

STUDENT HANDOUT 4 NATIONAL SECURITY QUESTIONNAIRE

For each item below, indicate with a check whether you agree or disagree. Be able to explain your opinion.

1. The best way to protect U.S. national security is to make the United States the strongest military power in the world. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
2. Because the economic well-being of the nation is dependent on securing adequate quantities of petroleum, the United States should do whatever is necessary, including using force, to safeguard its sources. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
3. Because the United States and Mexico share a common border and many of their people share a common heritage, the United States should provide whatever aid is necessary to prevent an anti-American government from coming to power in Mexico. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
4. The biggest threat to national security today is not military but economic warfare. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
5. It is in the best interests of the United States to encourage the fledgling democratic movements in Eastern Europe by providing generous economic and technical assistance. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
6. The rising foreign debt problem in many developing countries is something that affects all Americans. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE
7. Ecological disasters like the nuclear power plant explosion at Chernobyl in the Soviet Union, the greenhouse effect, and oil spills, while tragic and regrettable, have a negligible effect on national security. ☐ AGREE ☐ DISAGREE



STUDENT HANDOUT **5** WHOM DO YOU SEE?

• The age of the woman in this picture is _____.



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STUDENT HANDOUT 6 TWO PERSPECTIVES ON THE COLD WAR

AMERICAN POINT OF VIEW

Excerpted from *The Oxford History of the American People* by Samuel Eliot Morison.
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Almost every American admired Russia's war effort and wished to remain friendly with her government and people. But this did not suit Stalin . . .

The Cold War began as soon as the hot war was over. . . . Wherever Russian armies penetrated—excepting Austria and Czechoslovakia—they set up communist governments, and the local Communist Party saw to it that the elections, if held at all, would be a farce. . . . The United Nations had already been formed, but Stalin counted on neutralizing it if he could not control it.

Harry Truman . . . tried to continue the policy of collaboration with Russia in the hope that Stalin would prove reasonable. . . . [But as the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe continued with no prospect of withdrawal] the enormous backlog of good will that Russia had built up in Britain and the United States . . . was dissipated.

Winston Churchill, speaking before President Truman in March 1946 at Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri, said, "From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent." But years had to elapse before people recognized a basic principle: the children of a big revolution, such as Napoleon, Hitler, Mussolini, Stalin, and Mao, can never stop. To satisfy their followers, they have to postulate dangers from within and without, and drive on and on until they win all, or lose all. They may make truces, but never peace. Dean Acheson pointed this out in 1946, and President Truman, after he had considered all possible alternatives, came to the conclusion that the only possible way to deal with Russia in such ways as to prevent another and more terrible world war, was to convince her that she could not profit by war. . . .

The United Nations was established shortly after Truman became President, and he entertained high hopes of its ability to quench the angry passions of postwar and prevent a new war. . . . The charter of the United Nations established an international body measurably stronger than the old League of Nations. But it had the same basic defect of giving each of the "big five" on the top security council—the United States, Britain, Russia, China, and France—a veto on every decision. This veto was not proposed by Russia, although she exercised it *ad nauseum*. . . .

What was to be done about atomic energy and the bomb? . . . [T]he wartime explosions at Hiroshima and Nagasaki had indicated that

mankind had acquired a force which, if uncontrolled, could destroy civilization. At its first session the United Nations general assembly appointed an atomic energy commission on which twelve countries were represented. Bernard Baruch, the American member, presented a plan for creating an international authority to control every phase of the production of atomic energy, using it only for peaceful purposes, and forbidding the further manufacture of atomic weapons. Had this plan been adopted, America would have destroyed her stock of atomic bombs and made no more. Considering that the United States then had a monopoly of atomic weapons, this was a magnanimous proposal, and all countries on the atomic energy commission accepted it except Russia and Poland. They refused, pretending to regard as espionage the inspection necessary to enforce the plan, but really because they hoped and expected, through the work of their own scientists and the use of atomic secrets stolen from the United States, to match or surpass the American atomic arsenal. Russia made the counter-proposal that the United States destroy all her atomic weapons immediately, and every country promise to manufacture no more. As no such promise, without the sanction of inspection, was worth the paper it was written on, the Russian proposal got nowhere. . . .

Strokes and counterstrokes in the Cold War went on through 1947 and 1948. The first showdown occurred in the Mediterranean. . . . Russia, in an effort to expand her dependent empire of communist satellites, was putting intolerable pressure on the government of Iran (Persia), threatening Turkey, and supporting a civil war against the government of Greece; a particularly cruel war, since the communist guerrillas, invading from Albania, Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria, carried off thousands of Greek children for forced labor. Great Britain, which had been giving extensive financial and military aid to the Greek government but was now in the midst of her financial crisis, gave notice that she would have to abandon Greece and Turkey. President Truman made a quick decision to pick up both. On 12 March 1947 he sent a message to Congress embodying not only a request for appropriations for Greece and Turkey, but what came to be known as the Truman Doctrine. One of the primary objectives of the foreign policy of the United States, he said, "is the creation of conditions in which we and other nations will be able to work out a way of life free from coercion. . . . I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support freed peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures. . . ."

There were strokes and counterstrokes in Europe too. After the Western Allies had helped West Germany to set up a representative government (Russia having refused to co-operate), Stalin on 24 June 1948 ordered a blockade of non-communist zones of Berlin, hoping to squeeze out the Allies and annex their zones to East Germany. General Lucius D. Clay, the stalwart and intelligent commander of American occupation forces in Europe, warned the president that to lose Berlin would be to lose the entire Western position in Europe; and Harry saw the point. The American and British air forces promptly organized an airlift by transport planes that fed, clothed, and heated West Berlin for 321 days; 2.5 million tons of supplies were flown in, and the city's products flown out. The

Berlin airlift was a striking demonstration of what air power could accomplish, and of the value of firmness and strength when confronting communists. Stalin ended the blockade on 12 May 1949, but minor hampering of trains, motor convoys, and aircraft which have to cross East Germany to reach Berlin, has continued.

This menace, in return, brought about another initiative by President Truman resulting in the North Atlantic Treaty of 4 April 1949 between the United States, Canada, and ten nations of Western Europe. Each pledged itself to resist any armed attack against any one member. Under this treaty NATO, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, was set up. Never before had the United States gone so far in a peacetime promise to fight under certain conditions, or to recognize a frontier extending far overseas. . . . Russia looked upon the creation of NATO as a declaration of hostility; pacifists and left-wingers everywhere deplored its existence as "shaking the mailed fist," and all that; but there can no longer be any doubt that the NATO armed forces were a major deterrent to Russia's trying any more communist putsches in Europe.

Truman's policy, "containment" as it was called, worked. Russia made no conquests in Western Europe or the Near East after her military occupations in the confused period immediately following the war.

SOVIET POINT OF VIEW

Adapted from Nikolai V. Sivachev and Nikolai N. Yakovlev, *Russia and the United States* (Chicago, 1979) by permission of the University of Chicago Press.

Where do the causes [of the Cold War] lie? Washington made a most dangerous error with respect to the Soviet Union. On the heels of the victory over fascism in the Second World War, a "totalitarian model" of socialism was developed in the United States, and anything that did not fit into this far-fetched scheme was repudiated out of hand. . . . A perverted picture of Soviet society and of the motives of the policy of the U.S.S.R. was created. . . . The "totalitarian model" served anti-communist propaganda rather well, but it did unprecedented damage to the national interests of the United States. . . .

Intellectual blindness . . . in many ways contributed to the origin of the Cold War. Anything that was said or asserted by Moscow met the greatest suspicion in Washington. Conclusions were reached not on the basis of facts but on the basis of previously formed stereotypes.

. . . A notable landmark on the road to [fanning the anti-communist] hysteria was the famous speech of Winston Churchill in Fulton, Missouri . . . The speech in Fulton was not only a personal venture of the British ex-premier's, but to some extent a joint affair of Churchill's and Truman's. The fundamental ideas contained in this speech were a matter on which they had agreed. Churchill urged close Anglo-American alliance, shed tears over the alleged "iron curtain" that had fallen in Europe, and demanded that relations with the U.S.S.R. be cleared up immediately.

In *Pravda*, [Soviet leader Josef] Stalin responded to the Churchill speech: "As a matter of fact, Mr. Churchill and his friends in England and the United States are laying before the non-English-speaking nations something like an ultimatum: acknowledge our supremacy voluntarily, and then everything will be all right, otherwise war is inevitable. . . . Mr. Churchill's aim is a war aim, a summons to war against the U.S.S.R."

In 1947 the United States government adopted the philosophy of "containment." . . . For a start, "containment" was rationalized in terms of the Truman Doctrine . . . Truman had officially announced anti-communism to be the national policy of the United States. The creation of NATO heartened Truman. . . . The concept of "shield and sword" arose. Advancing the allied armies [of NATO]—the shield—to the fore, the United States behind this shield would strike a blow with the atomic "sword." . . .

During these years, when Truman's administration was moving toward an armed confrontation with the U.S.S.R., the Soviet government applied considerable efforts to normalize relations with the United States. This was consistent with the basic principle of Soviet foreign policy—peaceful coexistence—and was acutely necessary for the restoration of the Soviet economy. If in America people were chattering without restraint about the Soviet military "threat," in the U.S.S.R. a systematic reduction in armed forces was being carried out. In 1948 there remained 2.8 million men under arms in the U.S.S.R., compared with more than 11 million in 1945.

The United States clung tenaciously to its bases in many countries, and under conditions of peace endeavored to secure additional ones, while the Soviet troops, having fulfilled their obligation, were withdrawing from the countries that had been liberated during the years of struggle against the Axis powers.

The Soviet government strove with all its might to achieve normalization of the international situation. Soviet representatives at the United Nations explained that the U.S.S.R. regarded peaceful coexistence as of paramount importance. It repeatedly advanced proposals that the troops of members of the United Nations be withdrawn from the territories of other United Nations members, and spoke out for a general reduction in armaments. All was in vain, for Washington unswervingly followed its course, once it had chosen it.



7

STUDENT HANDOUT *HOW WE SEE THE WORLD OF TODAY, BY MIKHAIL GORBACHEV*

WHERE WE ARE

Everything was a great deal simpler many years ago. There existed several powers which determined their interests and balanced them if they so managed, and warred if they failed. International relations were built on the balance of the interests of these several powers. This is one domain, that is another, and that one is still another. But have a look at what has happened over the forty postwar years to the present.

The political tableau of the world includes the sizeable group of socialist countries . . . ; the vast tract of developed capitalist states . . . ; and the ocean of Third World countries which emerged in the past thirty to forty years when scores of Asian, African, and Latin American countries gained independence.

Another no less obvious reality of our time is the emergence of global issues, which have become vital to the destinies of civilization. I mean nature conservation, the critical condition of the environment, of the air basin and the oceans, and of our planet's traditional resources, which have turned out not to be limitless. I mean old and new awful diseases and mankind's common concern: how are we to put an end to starvation and poverty in vast areas of the Earth? I mean the intelligent joint work in exploring outer space and the world's oceans and the use of the knowledge obtained to the benefit of humanity. . . .

And here we see our interdependence, the integrity of the world, the imperative need for pooling the efforts of humanity for the sake of its self-preservation, for its benefit today, tomorrow, and for all time.

Last but not least, there is one more reality that we must recognize. Having entered the nuclear age when the energy of the atom is used for military purposes, mankind has lost its immortality. . . .

All of us face the need to learn to live at peace in this world, to work out a new mode of thinking, for conditions today are quite different from what they were even three or four decades ago. . . .

The time is ripe for abandoning views on foreign policy, which are influenced by an imperial standpoint. Neither the Soviet Union nor the United States is able to force its views on others. It is possible to suppress, compel, bribe, break, or blast, but only for a certain period. From the point of view of long-term, big-time politics, no one will be able to subordinate others. This is why only one thing—relations of equality—remains. . . .

NEW POLITICAL THINKING

... The fundamental principle of the new political outlook is very simple: *nuclear war cannot be a means of achieving political, economic, ideological or any other goals*. This conclusion is truly revolutionary, for it means discarding traditional notions of war and peace. It is the political function of war that has always been a justification for war, a "rational" explanation. Nuclear war is senseless; it is irrational. ...

But military technology has developed to such an extent that even a non-nuclear war would now be comparable with a nuclear war in its destructive effect. That is why it is logical to include in our category of nuclear wars this "variant" of an armed clash between major powers as well.

... [the] dictum that war is the continuation of policy only by different means has grown hopelessly out of date. For the first time in history, basing international politics on moral and ethical norms that are common to all humankind has become a vital requirement. Security can no longer be assured by military means. ... Diverting huge resources from other priorities, the arms race is lowering the level of security, impairing it. It is in itself an enemy of peace. ...

The new political outlook calls for the recognition of one more simple axiom: *security is indivisible*. It is either equal security for all or none at all. ... Consequently, there should be no striving for security for oneself at the expense of others.

On a par with the nuclear threat, the new political mode of thinking considers the solution of other global problems, including those of economic development and ecology, as an indispensable condition for assuring a lasting and just peace. To think in a new way also means to see a direct link between disarmament and development. ...

OUR ROAD TO A NEW OUTLOOK

The backbone of the new way of thinking is the recognition of the priority of human values, or to be more precise, of humankind's survival.

It may seem strange to some people that the communists should place a strong emphasis on human interests and values. Indeed, a class-motivated approach to all phenomena of social life is the ABC of Marxism. ...

In developing our philosophy of peace, we have taken a new look at the interdependence of war and revolution. In the past war often served to detonate revolution. The First World War provoked a real revolutionary storm which culminated in the October Revolution in our country. The Second World War evoked a fresh wave of revolutions in Eastern Europe and Asia, as well as a powerful anti-colonial revolution.

All this served to reinforce the Marxist-Leninist logic that imperialism inevitably generates major armed confrontations, while the latter naturally creates a "critical mass" of social discontent and a revolutionary situation in a number of countries. Hence a forecast which was long

adhered to in our country: a third world war, if unleashed by imperialism, would lead to new social upheavals which would finish off the capitalist system for good, and this would spell global peace.

But when the conditions radically changed so that the only result of nuclear war could be universal destruction, we drew a conclusion about the disappearance of the cause-and-effect relationship between war and revolution. The prospects of social progress "coincided" with the prospects of the prevention of nuclear war. . . .

Economic, political, and ideological competition between capitalist and socialist countries is inevitable. However, it can and must be kept within a framework of peaceful competition which necessarily envisages cooperation. . . .

Such are, in general outline, the main stages of our passage to a new philosophy of peace. . . .

Excerpt from *Perestroika* (By Mikhail Gorbachev). Copyright 1987 by Mikhail Gorbachev. Reprinted with permission of HarperCollins Publishers.

STUDENT HANDOUT 8 SOVIET FOREIGN POLICY: DIVERSE VIEWPOINTS

Directions: Read each of the following quotations. For each item, indicate whether the author supports or rejects the new thinking made popular by Mikhail Gorbachev.

1. We proceed from the class nature of international relations. Any other formulation . . . only introduces confusion into the thinking of Soviet people and our friends abroad.
Yegor Ligachev—member, Politburo of Communist Party

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING
2. An assured peace and disarmament will . . . enable socialism to reveal more fully its advantages in the peaceful competition with the capitalist system. The struggle for peace does not certainly solve the "who will win" question. Marxists are firm in their belief that socialism will gain the upper hand.
Yuri Krasin—Central Committee, Institute of Social Sciences

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING
3. In the Soviet Union of today we have replaced the Brezhnev Doctrine . . . with the Frank Sinatra Doctrine, from the title of one of his famous songs, "I Did It My Way." . . . I think, in fact, that each Eastern [European] country is doing it its own way.
Gennadi Gerasimov—spokesman, USSR Foreign Ministry

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING
4. People of the land! Let's increase our efforts to solve the common problems of mankind, in defense of the freedom and dignity of the individual. Let's celebrate common human values! Long live peace, faith, and cooperativeness of all peoples of the planet!
Communist Party slogan—May Day, 1990

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING
5. Gorbachev: Hands Off Lithuania!
Marchers' unofficial slogan—May Day, 1990

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING
6. On November 15, 1989, the 44th Session of the General Assembly adopted unanimously, by consensus, Resolution No. 44/21 submitted by the Soviet Union and the United States of America. . . . It is the first Resolution in which the Soviet Union and the United States expressed readiness to cooperate in strengthening the role and effectiveness of the UN in maintaining international peace and security.
Eduard Shevardnadze—former Soviet Minister of Foreign Affairs

☐ SUPPORTS NEW THINKING
☐ OPPOSES NEW THINKING

STUDENT HANDOUT **9** A HUNGER QUIZ

1. The poorest, least industrialized countries of the world are generally in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. Of the world's 5 billion people, how many live in the Third World?
 - a. one-fourth
 - b. one-third
 - c. one-half
 - d. three-fourths
2. The number of people in the world who suffer because of inadequate diets is approximately:
 - a. 2 billion.
 - b. 1 billion.
 - c. 100 million.
 - d. 1 million.
3. How many people will die this year from hunger and malnutrition?
 - a. 1 million
 - b. 20 million
 - c. 100 million
 - d. 500 million
4. The poorest one-fifth of the people in the developing world live on less than:
 - a. \$100 per year.
 - b. \$500 per year.
 - c. \$50 per month.
 - d. \$50 per week.
5. The average American spends about 16 percent of his or her income on food. Up to what percent of their earnings do poor people in the developing countries spend for food?
 - a. 50 percent
 - b. 65 percent
 - c. 85 percent
 - d. 80 percent
6. In eighty-three developing countries, the wealthiest 3 percent of the population own what percent of the land?
 - a. 94 percent
 - b. 65 percent
 - c. 32 percent
 - d. 80 percent

7. The United States contains less than 6 percent of the world's population. What percent of the world's nonrenewable resources (oil, minerals, etc.) does it consume?
- a. 35-40 percent
 - b. 25 percent
 - c. 15-20 percent
 - d. 75 percent
8. About 75 percent of the protein produced in the United States is consumed by:
- a. U.S. children.
 - b. U.S. population in general.
 - c. livestock.
 - d. people in the developing world.
9. The nation that gives the most foreign aid in percent of its gross national product (GNP) is the Netherlands at nearly 1 percent. In 1989, what percent of its GNP did the U.S. government give as development aid to foreign countries?
- a. .09 percent
 - b. .19 percent
 - c. .35 percent
 - d. .75 percent
10. Ten years ago there was a large gap between the amount of wealth held by the richest people of the world and that held by the poorest people. What has happened to that gap over the past ten years? It has:
- a. remained the same.
 - b. gotten smaller.
 - c. grown slightly larger.
 - d. grown much larger.



STUDENT HANDOUT 10 DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS

TABLE 1. POPULATION AND RATE OF ANNUAL INCREASE

Region	Population (in millions) 1987	Annual Rate of Increase 1985-90
First World		
North America	269	0.8%
Western Europe	155	0.1
Second World		
U.S.S.R.	281	0.8
Third World		
East Africa	177	3.1
Central America	110	2.3
Southern Asia	1,122	2.3

Source: *United Nations Demographic Yearbook* (1987)

TABLE 2. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY AGE (1985)

Region	Under 15	15-64	Over 65
First World			
North America	22%	66%	12%
Western Europe	18	68	13
Second World			
U.S.S.R.	25	66	10
Third World			
East Africa	47	50	3
Central America	42	54	4
Southern Asia	39	57	4

Source: *United Nations Demographic Yearbook* (1987)

TABLE 3. LIFE EXPECTANCY IN YEARS FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES

Region	Male	Female
First World		
United States	71.2	78.2
United Kingdom	71.6	77.2
Netherlands	72.9	79.5
West Germany	71.5	78.1
Japan	75.2	80.9
Second World		
U.S.S.R.	64.1	73.2
Third World (Africa)		
Burundi	47.3	50.7
Chad	43.9	47.1
Ethiopia	39.4	42.6
Kenya	56.5	60.5
Third World (Central America)		
El Salvador	58.0	66.5
Guatemala	55.1	59.4
Third World (Southern Asia)		
Bangladesh	54.9	54.7
India	52.5	52.1
Pakistan	59.0	59.2

Source: *United Nations Demographic Yearbook* (1987)

TABLE 4. AVERAGE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLDS FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES

Region	Size of Household
First World	
United States	2.7
United Kingdom	2.7
Japan	3.1
Second World	
U.S.S.R.	4.0
Third World (Africa)	
Burundi	4.5
Kenya	5.1
Third World (Central America)	
Guatemala	5.2
Third World (Southern Asia)	
Bangladesh	5.7
India	5.5
Pakistan	6.6

Source: *United Nations Demographic Yearbook* (1987)

TABLE 5. PER CAPITA INCOME FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Per Capita Income (1986) (in U.S. dollars)
First World	
United States	\$14,461
United Kingdom	7,860
Netherlands	8,492
West Germany	11,100
Japan	10,920
Second World	
U.S.S.R.	7,896
Third World (Africa)	
Ethiopia	110
Kenya	291
Zimbabwe	870
Third World (Latin America)	
Honduras	815
Nicaragua	850
Peru	980
Third World (Southern Asia)	
Bangladesh	150
India	248
Vietnam	170

Source: *The 1988 Information Please Almanac*

TABLE 6. UNDERNOURISHED PEOPLE IN THE THIRD WORLD

Country	Undernourished (percent of population)
Asia	57%
Africa	27
Near East	5
Latin America	11

Source: *Food and Hunger Notes*, MCC US Global Education Office,
March-April 1990

TABLE 7. PERSONS PER HOSPITAL BED AND ADULT LITERACY RATE FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Persons per Hospital Bed	Adult Literacy Rate
First World		
United States	190	99%
United Kingdom	135	99
West Germany	88	99
Japan	88	99
Second World		
U.S.S.R.	80	99
Third World (Africa)		
Chad	1,632	17
Kenya	765	50
Third World (Central America)		
El Salvador	853	62
Nicaragua	765	66
Third World (Southern Asia)		
Bangladesh	5,293	33
India	1,391	36
Vietnam	308	94

Source: *The World Almanac* (1989)

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What three statistics do you believe best indicate the overall health of the people living in a country? Explain your choices.
2. What three statistics reflect the biggest gap between North and South nations? Explain your choices.
3. Do you think statistics can be a poor indicator of the overall quality of life in a country? Explain your answer using an example from the data.
4. What four generalities about developing countries can you draw from the data?



STUDENT HANDOUT 11 AID TO DEVELOPING NATIONS

PART I: TYPES OF AID GIVEN TO DEVELOPING NATIONS

Bilateral aid. Bilateral aid refers to aid given by one nation directly to another.

Multilateral aid. Multilateral aid refers to aid given by more than one nation to an individual nation.

Financial assistance grants. Grants are given from one nation to another and usually do not require repayment. However, the grants often have limitations. For example, a country might be required to spend the money the United States gives on U.S.-made goods.

Loans. Loans require repayment. In the 1970s and early 1980s, over \$100 billion was loaned by U.S. banks to developing nations. However, most loans are granted through international loan agencies such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund.

Technical assistance. People with expertise and experience in such areas as agriculture, education, transportation, and public health share their knowledge with people in developing nations. Governmental agencies that provide technical assistance are the Peace Corps and the Agency for International Development (AID).

Food aid. Food aid constitutes about 14 percent of total U.S. aid. Food is given directly to the developing nations through the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act or Food for Peace Program, as well as through the United Nations World Food Program.

Private aid. In addition to government assistance, private voluntary groups such as churches, the Red Cross, and corporations give aid. Often the aid is provided in response to a disaster. For example, when a severe famine hit Africa in the 1980s, organizers held a rock concert called "Live Aid" that raised more than \$65 million.

Security assistance. Such aid includes all military assistance and economic support funds for countries of strategic importance to the United States. In 1987, of the total foreign aid provided by the United States (excluding food), over two-thirds was for security assistance.

PART II: U.S. FOREIGN AID APPROPRIATIONS (FY 1988)

	<i>(in billions of dollars)</i>
Bilateral Development (humanitarian, etc.)	\$2.89
Multilateral	1.45
Security	
Economic Support Fund	3.20
Military	5.37
Food Aid	1.05
Total	\$13.96

Source: *The Budget of the United States Government*

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STUDENT HANDOUT PERCEPTIONS OF WORLD HUNGER

You will take this "test" twice. Depending on your perception, place a T for true or an F for false in the first blank of each item the first time you take the test and in the second blank the second time.

1. People are hungry because their land is not suitable for growing food. _____
2. People in the Third World have large families because they are backward and uninformed. _____
3. Violence and war often keep food from being distributed to those who need it. _____
4. Supporting causes such as "Live Aid" is a waste of money. _____
5. Poor transportation and old-fashioned technology cause hunger. _____
6. The majority of hungry people tend to be poor and powerless in government. _____
7. Some rebel groups or governments use food as a weapon to continue civil war. _____
8. There will always be hungry people in the world. _____
9. There are simply too many people and not enough fertile land in the world to feed everyone adequately. _____
10. The nations in the world with the largest populations suffer the most severe hunger problems. _____



STUDENT HANDOUT 13 SEVEN REASONS WHY AFRICANS GO HUNGRY

1. *Population growth.* Africa's governments worry that there is simply too little food for too many mouths. Sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in the developing world where food production is losing the race with population growth, a recent United Nations study pointed out.

But overpopulation is not—in any simple sense—the cause of hunger, experts say. Rather, overpopulation is a result of hunger and poverty. When people are hungry and poor, they are physically weak, their productivity is low, and their life expectancy is short.

As a result, they need extra hands to help them work at home and in the fields. And that means having more children to provide those extra hands. When people have enough to eat and are financially secure, studies show that they tend to have fewer children.

2. *Unequal distribution of land.* For generations, African peasants survived by farming their own small plots of land and selling their surplus food to city dwellers. But today, millions of these subsistence farmers are losing the land they need to raise food for themselves. Wealthy landowners and large international corporations have bought up millions of acres of farmland to grow cash crops such as peanuts and cotton. These crops are not grown for local consumption, but are exported to wealthier countries such as the United States and France.

Subsistence farmers are being displaced by these commercial growers. Many peasants who have lost their farms now work as low-wage workers on the same land they use to farm for themselves. Often, there is no work at all in rural areas for such farmers. As a result, they must leave their homes to seek jobs in already overcrowded cities, which only adds to the problems of hunger and poverty in urban areas.

3. *Poor transportation technology.* Even when there is enough food, many African nations cannot afford to transport it to needy areas. Roads are often in disrepair—or non-existent—in rural areas. Problems in food distribution can quickly turn a flood or a drought into a major catastrophe.

Africa also suffers from outmoded technology. In some areas, farmers use centuries-old agricultural methods. Because of poor food-storage techniques, an estimated 40 percent of all crops stored in Africa are ruined by rot, moisture, or rodents and insects.

Finally, as the population of Africa's cities has mushroomed, governments have tried to keep food prices in the cities low. This policy is designed, some feel, to keep city people content and uninterested in rebellion.

But low food prices reduce rural farmers' incentive to increase production. And reduced production can cause food shortages, forcing governments to import costly food from abroad.

4. *Government policy.* Government policies can help to alleviate hunger or to perpetuate it. Unfortunately, many African nations have adopted economic policies that contribute to food shortages and worsen hunger.

Until recently, many African nations spent lots of money to build Western-style industries. For many, however, that effort led to debt, not economic growth. At the same time, they often neglected agriculture, and food production dropped.

In other countries, government policies favor production of food for export abroad over production of food for consumption at home. This often means that farm loans, seeds, irrigation, and technical assistance are given to large commercial-export farmers, but not to the poorest peasant farmers.

5. *Environmental problems.* Africa's current environmental crisis also seriously threatens its food-producing resources. Each year, a land area twice the size of New Jersey is turned into unproductive desert because of soil erosion. The erosion is caused by overgrazing livestock, destructive farming techniques, and the cutting down of age-old rain forests.

Many of Africa's cash crops damage the land, draining the soil of vital nutrients. Then, when the land has been used up, farmers move on to other areas, leaving behind desolate countryside.

Poor peasant farmers who have been driven off their lands tend to search out marginal, erosion-prone areas to farm, adding to the destruction. When a drought occurs, these farmers are especially vulnerable.

And in many countries, logging and ranching companies level forests and turn areas that could grow food into pastures for livestock. Ironically, much of the lumber and beef produced is sent overseas and not used at home.

6. *Debt.* Like the rest of the Third World, Africa depends heavily on the export of raw materials and food crops to fund development. But African nations have no control of the price of these commodities. Recently, commodity prices have plunged to a forty-year low.

Meanwhile, African nations still need to import—and pay for—machinery, concrete, trucks, and consumer goods. To make up the difference between export income and import expenses, countries have been forced to borrow billions of dollars from international banks.

As interest rates—the cost of borrowing money—have soared, many African debtor nations have had trouble repaying the interest on these loans. Nearly half of the money African nations earn from exports goes to paying off the continent's \$179 billion debt.

As a result, African nations have been forced to tighten their belts. Many have imposed austerity programs that have cut workers' wages and raised the price of food and consumer goods. The effects are felt most keenly by the poor, many of whom may be pushed over the edge into hunger.

7. *War.* In much of Africa, violence and war are the biggest obstacles to famine relief. Civil war in Mozambique, Sudan, and Ethiopia hampers both production and distribution of food supplies. Both sides in these wars often use food as a "weapon," denying aid and food to civilians as a form of punishment.

Other nations are beset by periodic outbursts of ethnic strife. Many of these conflicts are a legacy of Africa's colonial past, when European conquerors drew up boundaries without regard to religious, ethnic, or linguistic groupings.

Meanwhile, African nations spend millions on weapons and armies—money that could be used to grow food or spur economic development.

"Why Africans Go Hungry" by Steven Manning. From *UPDATE*, January 1989.
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STUDENT HANDOUT 14 RIPPLES OF THE DEMOCRATIC REVOLUTION

Study these highlights of the democratic movement of 1989-90. Be prepared to locate and identify each country or city mentioned in the handout on a map and answer the review questions.

January 1989. The Hungarian parliament passes legislation permitting opposition political parties to form. The Communist Party renames itself the Hungarian Socialist Party.

March 1989. In contested elections, people in the Soviet Union elect a new 2,250-member Congress of the People's Deputies. One-third of the Communist Party's regional chiefs fail to win seats.

May 1989. Hungary begins dismantling the barbed wire along its border with Austria—a symbolic opening of the iron curtain.

May 1989. Chinese student protesters erect a thirty-three foot tall "Goddess of Democracy" in Beijing's Tiananmen Square during massive student/worker demonstrations. Several months later, Chinese troops rout the demonstrators and suppress opposition to the government.

August 1989. Tadeusz Mazowiecki of Poland is sworn in as the first noncommunist prime minister in Eastern Europe in forty years. This comes after the Solidarity trade union—turned political party—won all but one of the contested seats in the Polish parliament.

November 1989. After massive protests in East Berlin, Dresden, and Leipzig, East German leaders open the Berlin Wall in a desperate bid to keep the Communist Party in power.

November 1989. Thousands of Czechs jam downtown Prague demanding a free press and free elections. A week later, communist rulers resign.

November 1989. Demonstrations in Bulgaria lead to the overthrow of longtime communist leader Todor Zhivkov.

December 1989. In Chile's first presidential election in nineteen years, opposition leader Patricio Aylwin defeats the hand-picked candidate of military strongman and president, General Augusto Pinochet.

December 1989. In what its leader called the "Velvet Revolution," the Czech people sweep away their communist government in free elections.

December 1989. Romanian communist dictator Nicolae Ceausescu speaks to a huge crowd from the balcony of Bucharest's Palace. He defends the use of force against prodemocracy demonstrators but is shouted down by the crowd chanting "freedom" and "democracy." Less than a week later, Ceausescu is overthrown and executed.

April 1990. The National Opposition Union (UNO), a coalition of fourteen political parties, ousts Sandinista president Daniel Ortega in the first peaceful change of government in Nicaragua's history. Violeta Chamorro becomes the new president.

April 1990. In elections in Yugoslavia, Franjo Tudjman, the candidate of the Croatian Democratic Community, a new noncommunist party, is elected president of Croatia—Yugoslavia's second largest republic.

May 1990. Voters in Bulgaria and Romania go to the polls in the first contested elections in forty years.

June 1990. In the first multiparty balloting in thirty years, voters in Myanmar (Burma) award the National League for Democracy 80 percent of the seats in a new parliament.

July 1990. Thousands of demonstrators demanding a multiparty democracy defy a government ban by demonstrating in Kenya.

August 1990. Multiparty parliamentary elections are held in the longtime communist country of Mongolia.

October 1990. East and West Germany are united into the single nation of Germany, ending more than forty years of separation.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What area of the world is experiencing the most dramatic change? What countries are involved?
2. In which country did democracy suffer its biggest setback? In what way?
3. Which Central American country experienced the first peaceful change of government in its history?
4. What African nations have recently begun moving toward granting their people greater political freedom?
5. What evidence is there that democracy is making headway in the Soviet Union?

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STUDENT HANDOUT 15 CENTRAL AMERICA: AMERICA'S TROUBLED NEIGHBORS

In the third century A.D., the Maya Indians established a vast empire in present-day Guatemala, Mexico, and Honduras. The Mayas developed a calendar, a writing system, and engineering and architectural skills. The Maya culture reached its height between 600 and 900 A.D.

In the sixteenth century Spaniards moved into Central America, imposing their religion, language, and culture on the peoples they conquered. Thus, people of Spanish birth or descent made up the ruling class and everyone else belonged to lower classes.

By 1839 Central America was divided into the five countries of El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, and Costa Rica. Panama did not receive its independence until 1903, and Belize is usually considered part of the Caribbean community.

CENTRAL AMERICA TODAY

The countries of Central America have had several kinds of governments. Costa Rica has had a peaceful representative democracy for many years, and both Panama and Nicaragua have made recent moves toward democracy. In Panama, an elected government was instituted in the wake of the U.S.-aided overthrow of military strongman Manuel Noriega. Nicaragua, in free elections, voted out a leftist government led by Sandinista leader Daniel Ortega while electing opposition leader Violeta Chamorro. Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras have often been controlled by military leaders who allow little opposition. With the exception of Costa Rica, Central America has little experience in democracy.

Most Central American families live on less than \$700 a year. The countries generally have an unequal distribution of wealth and land, which means a small group at the top lives very well while the vast majority live in poverty.

Central American economies depend largely on export crops such as coffee, cotton, bananas, sugar, and beef. Falling world prices for these commodities have resulted in further hardship for Central Americans and have hurt the region's economic growth.

FOCUS ON NICARAGUA

Nicaragua is potentially one of the wealthiest countries in Central America. It has abundant natural resources, low population density, and sufficient arable land.

In 1909, the United States sent a naval force to Nicaragua after two Americans were executed. U.S. Marines stayed in Nicaragua off and on until 1933. Before leaving, they trained General Anastasio Somoza Garcia to lead a national guard. Somoza used the national guard to assassinate guerrilla leader Augusto Sandino who had become a national hero for his opposition to U.S. occupation of Nicaragua, overthrow liberal President Juan Batista Sacassa, and establish a military dictatorship. During the next forty-five years, three Somozas ruled Nicaragua—Anastasio Somoza and his two sons, Luis Somoza Debayle and Anastasio Somoza Debayle. The Somozas were so corrupt that, by 1978, many Nicaraguan peasants, business leaders, and members of the middle class refused to support the Somoza regime.

The Sandinistas. On July 20, 1979, after a two-year civil war, the Somoza regime was overthrown by a popular opposition movement made up of a procommunist group—the Sandinista National Liberation Front—and several other political factions representing both the poor and the middle class. A new Government of National Reconstruction was formed. Although the Sandinistas played a major role, the government also included representatives of the private business sector and the middle class. The new government said it would spurn “American-style” capitalism and “Soviet-style” communism and follow a third way: a part socialist and part-capitalist economy with political pluralism—many political groups instead of just one.

The Sandinista government maintained close ties to the Soviet Union and Cuba and received billions of dollars in economic and military aid from communist nations. In response to Nicaragua’s procommunist government, the United States enacted a trade embargo against the Sandinistas and backed antigovernment rebels, known as the *contras*.

The U.S. rationale for giving aid to the *contras* was that the Sandinistas had gone back on their promise of democracy. U.S. leaders held that the Sandinistas’ Marxist government threatened the security of neighboring countries as well as the United States.

Public opinion in the United States was divided on the issue of aid to the *contras*. By late 1984, a majority of the members of Congress were raising serious questions about U.S. involvement in Nicaragua. Funds to the *contras* were subsequently cut off on October 1, 1984, but in 1986, Congress approved \$100 million in military and nonlethal “humanitarian” aid for the *contras*. Congress rejected requests for more military aid in 1988 and 1989, although it approved some humanitarian aid.

In August 1987, Costa Rican President Oscar Arias Sanchez outlined a peace plan to restore stability to the region. The peace agreement was signed by presidents of all five Central American countries. It called for an end to military aid to all insurgents, promotion of multiparty, democratic political systems, cease-fires and amnesties, and dialogue between governments and opposition groups. In 1989, Nicaraguan president Daniel Ortega agreed to a similar regional peace plan in which *contra* forces would be disbanded if his government held democratic elections. In the subsequent elections held in March 1990, a fourteen-party coalition (UNO) opposed to the Sandinista government gained 55 percent of the vote, bringing Violeta Chamorro to the presidency.

U.S. POLICY IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The United States has often seen Central America as a battlefield for ideological conflict. Many U.S. policymakers fear that if a Central American government falls to leftist rebels, other nations in the region will follow, eventually bringing communism to Mexico. Thus, some in the United States think the government must take an active role in the region to protect U.S. borders from the threat of communism.

Now that the Sandinistas have been defeated in Nicaragua, the Bush Administration has promised to end a five-year trade embargo against Nicaragua and to restore Nicaragua's credit at international lending institutions. Full diplomatic relations have been reestablished. At the same time, Nicaraguans expect the United States to provide millions of dollars in aid.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Who made up the ruling class in Central America during the Spanish conquest? What evidence exists that this tradition continues today?
2. What types of governments have existed in Central America in recent years?
3. What social and economic conditions make Central America a region ripe for revolution?
4. Who was Augusto Sandino, and why is he a Nicaraguan hero?
5. Who are the Sandinistas and how did they win control of the government? Whom did they replace?
6. Who were the *contras*, and why did they have U.S. support?
7. Why did some Americans oppose U.S. aid to the *contras*?
8. What was the Arias Peace Plan?
9. What are the basic assumptions underlying American foreign policy in Central America? Do you think they are accurate?
10. What recent U.S. military action took place in Central America? What was its outcome? Do you think it was justified?



STUDENT HANDOUT 16 UNITED NATIONS UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

This universal declaration of human rights as common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional, or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing, or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3. Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and security of person.

Article 4. No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5. No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment, or punishment.

Article 6. Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7. All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8. Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention, or exile.

Article 10. Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11. (1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence. (2) No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home, or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state. (2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and return to his country.

Article 14. (1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution. (2) This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15. (1) Everyone has the right to a nationality. (2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16. (1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage, and at its dissolution. (2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses. (3) The family is the natural and fundamental group of society and is entitled to protection by society and the state.

Article 17. (1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others. (2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship, and observance.

Article 19. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association. (2) No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21. (1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives. (2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country. (3) The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22. Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international cooperation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social, and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23. (1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work, and to protection against unemployment. (2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work. (3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration insuring for himself and his family an existence worth of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection. (4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24. Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25. (1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing, and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age, or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control. (2) Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26. (1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. (2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote

understanding, tolerance, and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace. (3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27. (1) Everyone has the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts, and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits. (2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary, or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28. Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realised.

Article 29. (1) Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible. (2) In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order, and the general welfare in a democratic society. (3) These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30. Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group, or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

After reading the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, answer the following questions.

1. The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* identifies three kinds of rights: 1) economic—rights dealing with survival and security; 2) cultural—rights dealing with dignity and self respect; and 3) political—rights dealing with participation in the political process and control over one's own life. Below, list three rights in each category that you consider the most important.

Economic

Cultural

Political

2. What are the similarities between the *U.S. Bill of Rights* and the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*? What are some differences between the two documents?

3. If the members of the United Nations knew the rights they listed in the *Declaration* were more idealistic than realistic, why do you think they bothered to write them down? Are such rights attainable? Why or why not?



1. A large U.S. chemical corporation operates a subsidiary in South Africa that employs 1,500 workers. About 20 percent of the management positions are filled by blacks. Should the American company pull out of South Africa to increase pressure on the South African government to grant the black majority equal rights? Or, should the corporation stay in South Africa to try to reform the system from within?

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3. As president, Ferdinand Marcos was an important ally against communist influence in the Philippines. He ruled the country by military force. Violent and undisciplined troops often terrorized people critical of his regime. The murder of opposition leader Benigno Aquino, who was shot to death as he returned to the Philippines after years of exile in the United States, led to a revolt against Marcos. This uprising eventually led to the election of Aquino's widow, Corazon, as president. Although the Aquino government is committed to democracy, human rights violators still hold important positions in the military. Should the United States press President Aquino to remove the people responsible for the worst abuses, thereby perhaps destabilizing her fragile government? Or, should these people be allowed to hold key positions and perhaps continue further violations?

4. In May 1989, thousands of students and workers in Beijing, China, staged massive prodemocracy protests. However, troops supported by tanks and armored personnel carriers crushed the movement. The bloody military crackdown resulted in hundreds of deaths and the arrest of many of the protesters. China currently has most favored nation (MFN) trade status with the United States. Under this status, Chinese exports are subject to a tariff of between 10 and 25 percent. A loss of MFN status would increase tariffs to as much as 90 percent. Should the United States rescind MFN status to put pressure on China to release jailed prodemocracy demonstrators and to grant the Chinese people greater political freedom? Or should the United States continue MFN status in the hope that increased trade ties will give it greater leverage with Chinese leaders?

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5. The United States has been a strong supporter of Israel since the Jewish state was founded in 1948. In the past, Israel has often been the victim of Arab terrorist attacks. American sympathies have generally been with Israel. However, many Americans have been critical of Israeli behavior in putting down Palestinian unrest in the Israeli-occupied territory of the West Bank. West Bank Palestinians resent being controlled by Israel and claim that their sometimes violent behavior is in answer to Israel's denial of the Palestinian right to self-determination. Israel, on the other hand, believes that until the Palestinians recognize Israel's right to exist and promise to stop the hostility and terrorism, it cannot give self-determination to the West Bank Palestinians without compromising its security. Should the United States cut the level of aid to Israel—currently \$3 billion annually—until Israel recognizes the rights of the Palestinians? Or should, as Israel contends, the aid not be tied to human rights because much of the aid is going to resettle the more than 1,000 new immigrants arriving in Israel each week? Can the United States risk offending Israel—one of the few U.S. allies in the Middle East? Or, should the United States be more critical of Israel in hopes of gaining new support from Arab countries?



STUDENT HANDOUT 18 OFFSHORE OIL DRILLING—THE DEBATE

Americans are sharply divided over the issue of offshore oil drilling. Some say that national security depends on the oil obtained from offshore drilling and that, without it, the United States is too dependent on foreign oil sources. Other Americans claim that the environmental risks involved in offshore drilling far outweigh any benefits received.

Read the opinions on both sides; then decide for yourself where you stand on the issue of offshore oil drilling. Complete the exercise and answer the questions that follow.

OFFSHORE OIL DRILLING SHOULD BE EXPANDED

1. The U.S. demand for oil keeps rising, at a rate of about 2 percent each year, while domestic production is declining about 6 percent. The United States now imports almost 50 percent of its oil. Most of this oil comes from the Middle East, a region of the world suffering from political and economic unrest. If we increase domestic production, we will become less reliant on foreign sources of oil and the often unpredictable policies of oil-exporting nations. As long as the United States has to depend on trade with oil-producing nations such as Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, it risks being drawn into conflicts that are not in its best interest.
2. Currently, Alaska's Prudhoe Bay area is America's largest oil field. It produces 20 percent of the oil pumped in the United States. But experts predict that the Alaska oil will run out by 2005. That means that we must explore further in arctic Alaska as well as along the continental shelf off the lower forty-eight states—two areas believed to be the only remaining U.S. land with significant oil potential. Because of the potentially difficult conditions associated with drilling in the arctic or offshore, developing a productive oil field may take five to ten years. So, we must begin as soon as possible.
3. The United States must develop domestic oil reserves. Tankers bringing oil from abroad have proved to be a greater threat to the coastal environments than the risks associated with offshore drilling. Recent tanker crashes and groundings have led to massive oil spills, causing millions of dollars in damage, killing fish and other marine life, and disrupting the lives of people living in coastal communities. A leak in an offshore drilling

operation can be contained by capping, but no such safety features exist once a tanker's hull is split open and oil begins to pour out. Offshore drilling must be expanded.

OFFSHORE OIL DRILLING SHOULD BE ABANDONED!

1. Each generation receives a legacy—the environment—from its ancestors and holds it in trust for its descendants. This means that each generation has an obligation to use the environment in such a way that it is conserved for the future. We must preserve our environment. It is not fair to future generations to take environmental risks associated with offshore oil drilling (spills, leaks, fires, disruption of marine life and ecosystems, etc.). The damage to marine life and coastal communities far outweighs any benefits that such drilling would bring.
2. The probable amount of oil in the outer continental shelf is small when compared to the amount of oil annually consumed in the United States. For example, some experts estimate that the total amount of oil in the continental shelf off California is less than the amount of oil consumed by the United States in three months. The environmental risks of offshore drilling to the marine life and coastal communities simply are not worth a three-month supply of oil.
3. Given the rate of oil consumption in the United States, we will never be self-sufficient in oil. And, the amount of oil on the planet is limited. Therefore, we should not waste our time or resources on further oil exploration. We should instead focus our efforts on minimizing our dependence on foreign oil through a strong energy conservation program. The government should also be exploring the feasibility of other energy sources, such as solar energy, geothermal energy, wind power, and hydropower.

Summarize the three positions taken by each side, then answer the questions that follow.

For Offshore Drilling

Argument #1:

Argument #2:

Argument #3:

Against Offshore Drilling

Argument #1:

Argument #2:

Argument #3:

With which side do you most agree?

Which of the arguments did you find most persuasive? Why?

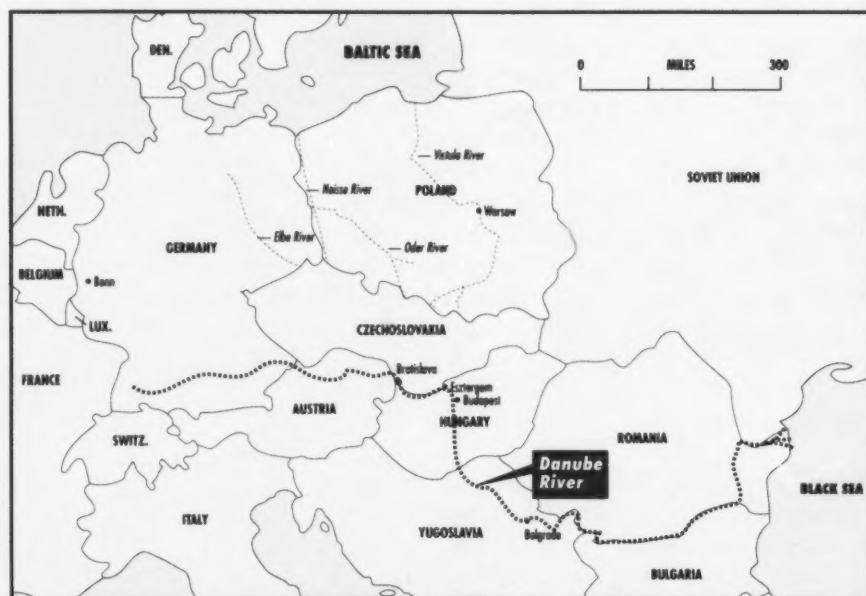
STUDENT HANDOUT 19 BEFOULED TO ITS ROMANTIC DEPTHS, DANUBE REACHES A TURNING POINT

The following reading is from a *New York Times* article by Marlise Simons entitled: "Befouled to Its Romantic Depths, Danube Reaches a Turning Point." Read it and answer the questions that follow.

ESZTERGOM, Hungary — Swollen and pearly gray, the Danube makes a spectacular turn here, pushing into gentle woodlands as it surges south toward Budapest. It is the river at its most seductive: winding through the valleys of Central Europe, where it has inspired poets and composers and generations of painters who still work on its banks today.

But love and splendor have not shielded Europe's grandest waterway from abuse. From its source in Germany's Black Forest, sweeping through a catchment area of 80 million people and eight countries, it runs a gauntlet of urban sewage, discharge from factories, and runoff from farms.

Along its 2,000 miles, it is continuously fed by polluted tributaries. Slowly it loses life until, sluggish and befouled, it reaches the Black Sea.



NEAR BIOLOGICAL DEATH

Scientists are just beginning to study the entire length of the Danube's rich and changing ecosystem, its myriad islands, the content of its nutrients and its dragging movement through the Balkans. . . . The Soviet Academy of Sciences recently sponsored a conference on the plight of the

river, and last year Soviet scientists talked to their Hungarian and Bulgarian counterparts about the need to stop contaminating it.

The scientists agreed that an enormous volume of pesticides, fertilizers, detergents, and other chemicals had turned the Danube into one of the main polluters of the Black Sea. They also warned that phosphates and nitrates are causing a record amount of algae blooms in the shallow and land-trapped sea.

Despite the extent of pollution in the Danube, specialists say the waterway seems robust compared with the grid of rivers that drain the northern plains of Eastern Europe and spill into the Baltic Sea. Industries built over the last three decades, they say, have pounded the Elbe, the Oder, the Neisse, and the Vistula to near biological death.

Environmentalists say the poisoning of the Danube and other rivers in Eastern Europe suggests that pressure to fulfill Communist quotas has been as rapacious to nature as capitalism's urge for profit. The difference, they say, is that pressure groups in the West have forced capitalist industries to start cleaning up.

The West, it appears, has now also accepted the task of rescuing the marred waters of formerly communist countries, whose new governments have neither the capital nor the technology to clean up the mess.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONTRACTS

In Budapest the eye is drawn to seven magnificent bridges over the Danube, but hidden pipes are spitting the raw sewage of two million inhabitants into the water. Neither Bratislava, or Belgrade, nor most other towns along the waterway treat their waste. In Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Romania, and Bulgaria, industries freely spill oil, cellulose, and chemicals into the Danube. The barrage of pollution, specialists say, is rapidly diminishing the river's capacity to cleanse itself.

The Danube, at the center of Europe, may appear to have no obvious guardian. But tens of thousands of people have become devoted to its protection in recent years.

RADIOACTIVE LEAKS

[For example] environmental leaders report that a Czechoslovak nuclear power plant on the Vag, a Danube tributary, is raising the water's temperature and has leaked radioactive material.

"There is a lot of unrecorded contamination," said Andras Lukacs, a geophysicist who heads the Foundation for the Protection of the Environment in Budapest. While most industries in the Danube basin lack adequate filter installations, at least they are there to be seen. But "much of the used oil from vehicles is not collected," Mr. Lukacs said. "Many storage tanks of petrol stations and depots leak. Toxic waste is badly stored. All this gets into the groundwater or into the river. We know that much of Hungary's groundwater is polluted."

Environmentalists in Yugoslavia are demanding that Serbian industries contain their fallout. They have charged that the drinking water in much of Yugoslavia is not safe. In Bulgaria, the environmentally oriented Eco-Glasnost has begun a campaign against a caustic soda plant in Giurgiu, Romania, that contaminates both the Danube and the air. Everyone agrees that cleaning up the river will take years and a fortune that is not available.

As the barges and pleasure boats arrive again with the spring, defenders of the Danube are planning to step up their more modest campaign among people who find pleasure and rest in the river's beauty. In Austria, environmental groups have begun a drive to outmaneuver developers by buying land along the banks and creating nature reserves.

"It is going very well, we already bought two parks," said Gunther Lutschinger, a biologist with the World Wide Fund for Nature, who manages the two reserves. "We are going to raise more funds. We see that many people love the Danube."

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Review the article by answering the following questions:

1. How long is the Danube River?
2. Through how many nations does the Danube flow?
3. How many people live in the Danube area?
4. What are the Danube's major sources of pollution?
5. How does the condition of the Danube compare to the condition of other rivers in Eastern Europe?

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6. Identify the environmental groups in Europe that are working to help clean up the Danube. What strategy has each group taken?

Think about the article and its implications, and then answer the following questions:

1. Who owns the Danube River?
2. Who is responsible for polluting the rivers in Eastern Europe?
3. Is it possible for any one nation to clean up the rivers without the cooperation of other nations? Why or why not?
4. If you were given the responsibility of cleaning up the Danube, what would you do?
5. What arguments might Danube nations give to *not* support your plan?
6. What arguments could you give to refute opponents to your plan?
7. Do you think cooperation among nations in solving environmental problems is a bridge to peace? Why or why not?



STUDENT HANDOUT 20 POPULATION PROBLEMS

Today, the world is populated by 5.3 billion people. This figure is expected to reach 6 billion by the middle of the 1990s and, at the present growth rate, it will double within forty years. Over 90 percent of the population growth is occurring in the developing world, where economies are weak and societies are often torn apart by social unrest and severe poverty.

The overpopulation of most Third World nations has a serious impact on the environment. It leads to overcultivation of land, overgrazing, erosion, and in coastal areas, increased salinization of the water. The result is deteriorating soil and declining agricultural productivity in nations that most need to increase their food supply. At the same time, increased urbanization results in densely crowded slums, increased traffic, faulty or nonexistent sewage and waste disposal systems, and inefficient industrial operations. Pollution and environmental damage increase rapidly. Why does this happen?

For the governments of many developing countries, continued population growth means that any available money is swallowed up just meeting the daily needs of people, rather than being invested in creating jobs and conserving resources. Such policies lay the foundations of a bleak future—for both society and the environment.

Pollution, once thought to be primarily a problem of the industrialized world, is today a crisis in the developing world. While most industrialized nations are trying to control pollution associated with factories and cities, Third World countries, pressed for rapid development, cannot afford the technology required to fight pollution.

Developing countries, with their small reserves of capital, shortages of scientists and engineers, and weak governments, are the least able to adopt environmental controls. Many of the controls are costly. Thus, many factories built in the Third World are not equipped with pollution control devices. Sewage often goes untreated and is dumped in rivers, streams, and lakes, poisoning the ground water and drinking supplies. Air pollution in urban centers in some Third World countries is so thick that permanent clouds of haze hang over many cities, contributing to health problems among residents and the effects on wildlife and ecosystems may soon be beyond the reach of human correction.

Bangladesh has all of the above problems and more. Bangladesh, with over 2,000 people per square mile, is one of the world's most densely populated countries. Its population is increasing at a rate of 2.6 percent per year. The United States, with a density of sixty-eight people per square mile, has a natural increase in population—not counting immigration—of only 0.6 percent. Bangladesh suffers all the problems related to overpopulation—poverty, illiteracy, poor health, limited capital for development, and environmental damage.

VITAL STATISTICS: BANGLADESH AND THE UNITED STATES

	Bangladesh	United States
Size	56,000 sq. mi.	3,615,122 sq. mi.
Population	112,757,000	247,498,000
Population growth rate	2.6% per year	0.6% per year
Population density	2028 per sq. mi.	68 per sq. mi.
Urban population	20%	79.2%
GNP per capita (1986)	\$113	\$16,444
Life expectancy: male	50.5 years	71.5 years
female	49.6 years	78.5 years
Literacy rate	25%	99%

Source: *The World Almanac* (1989)

Using the information in this handout, think about and answer the following questions:

1. Explain how Bangladesh's rapid population growth might have helped cause its low life expectancy, its low per capita GNP, and its low literacy rate.
2. Why do you think it is common to find severe environmental damage in developing nations, especially developing nations like Bangladesh that are experiencing rapid population growth?
3. Why might the governments of developing nations like Bangladesh be unwilling to spend large amounts of money on conservation and pollution control?
4. In your opinion, should other nations become involved in the environmental problems of developing nations? What might be the advantages or disadvantages of such involvement?
5. Imagine you are the head of the government in Bangladesh. What actions would you take to solve the problems of overpopulation and pollution in your nation?



STUDENT HANDOUT 21 U.S.-JAPAN TRADE ISSUES

Read each statement and mark either T or F in the blank provided. Do not write in the comments column until you discuss the handout in class.

COMMENTS

1. The United States enjoys a favorable balance of trade with Japan. _____
2. Japan is the United States' largest trading partner. _____
3. The Japanese government has encouraged the Japanese people to buy American products. _____
4. No American company has been able to capture more than a 50 percent share of the market in Japan. _____
5. Foreign-made goods are gaining popularity in Japan. _____
6. U.S.-Japan trade largely includes the exchange of American raw materials for Japanese manufactured goods. _____
7. An American car is always more "American" than a Japanese car. _____
8. The United States has a much higher per capita income than Japan. _____
9. Japan is the world's top creditor nation. _____
10. Japan has the largest investment of any foreign country in the United States. _____

STUDENT HANDOUT **22** LATIN AMERICA DEBT (1990)

Latin American nations owe about \$400 billion in foreign debt. Of this, \$260 billion is private debt and \$140 billion is owed to other nations, the International Monetary Fund, or the World Bank. The following table shows the foreign debt owed by each of the Latin American nations.

Country	Total Debt (\$ millions)
Mexico	\$101,566
Central America	
Guatemala	2,633
Belize	136
Honduras	3,318
El Salvador	1,806
Nicaragua	8,052
Costa Rica	4,530
Panama	5,620
South America	
Colombia	17,001
Venezuela	34,657
Guyana	1,647
Suriname	NA
French Guiana	NA
Ecuador	10,864
Peru	18,570
Brazil	114,592
Bolivia	5,456
Chile	19,645
Argentina	58,936
Paraguay	2,493
Uruguay	3,825

Source: World Bank

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

The following list contains a variety of resources on peace and security issues. These periodicals and journals, private organizations and public agencies, and books may be useful to teachers of history, government, economics, and geography. You may wish to share some of these materials with your students. *The inclusion of items in this list does not constitute an endorsement of the organizations or authors by the United States Institute of Peace or the Close Up Foundation.*

CHAPTER 1. PERSPECTIVES ON PEACE

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

1. *Arms Control Today*. Monthly. Arms Control Association, 11 Dupont Circle, NW, #250, Washington, DC 20036. Magazine on arms control issues.
2. *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists*. 10 issues/yr. 6042 South Kimbark Ave., Chicago, IL 60637. Nontechnical magazine focusing on problems arising from rapidly advancing technology and nuclear weapons.
3. *Foreign Affairs*. 5 issues/yr. Foreign Affairs Reader Services, 58 East 68th St., New York, NY 10021. Journal on all aspects of international relations, world politics, trade, and economics.
4. *Foreign Policy*. Quarterly. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 11 Dupont Circle, NW, Washington, DC 20036. Policy-oriented journal on U.S. foreign, economic, and security policies.
5. *The Washington Quarterly*. Quarterly. MIT Press Journals, 55 Hayward Street, Cambridge, MA 02142. Foreign policy journal featuring articles on East-West relations, defense and security, foreign affairs, and international problems.
6. *World Press Review*. Monthly. 200 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10016. Digest of translated articles and news items from the world press.

ORGANIZATIONS

ACCESS, 1730 M St., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 785-6630. Nonadvocacy organization that serves as an information clearinghouse on international security and peace issues. Works to expand the public debate on international issues; maintains database of resources and speakers bureau.

American Defense Foundation, P.O. Box 2497, Washington, DC 20013; (202) 544-4704. Bipartisan organization that advocates a strong national defense. Acts as an information clearinghouse on issues related to national security; seeks to educate young Americans on matters of defense and foreign policy.

American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research, International Programs, 1150 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 862-5800. Research and educational organization that conducts conferences, seminars, and debates, and sponsors research on national security.

American Security Council, Washington Communications Center, Boston, VA 22713; (703) 547-1776. Bipartisan, prodefense organization of individuals, institutions, and others supporting research and information centers on national security. Opposes disarmament and decreased defense spending; conducts educational activities.

Arms Control Association, 11 Dupont Circle, NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 797-6456 (or 6450). Nonpartisan organization advocating arms control. Seeks to broaden public interest in arms control, disarmament, and national security policy.

The Brookings Institution, Foreign Policy Studies, 1775 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 797-6105. Research and educational program that conducts studies on foreign policy, national security, regional studies, and international energy and economic policies. Publishes books and the quarterly *Brookings Review*.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 11 Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 900, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 797-6400. Conducts research on international affairs and American foreign policy and publishes *Foreign Policy*, bulletins, monographs, and progress reports. Program activities include a broad range of military, political, and economic issues.

Center for Strategic and International Studies, 1800 K Street, NW, Suite 400, Washington, DC 20006; (202) 775-3119. CSIS publications are designed to shed light on a particular problem by defining its origins, importance, possible evolution, and the policy options available for its resolution. The mission of CSIS is to help shape policy in the areas of international security, politics, and economics.

Center for Teaching International Relations, Graduate School of International Studies, University of Denver, Denver, CO 80208; (303) 871-2164. CTIR offers a selection of global resources for the precollegiate classroom.

Consortium on Peace, Research, Education, and Development (COPRED), c/o Center for Conflict Resolution, George Mason University, 4400 University Drive, Fairfax, VA 22030; (703) 323-2806. A network for research and education in peace and conflict resolution. Publishes education materials for all grade levels.

Council for the Advancement of Citizenship, 1724 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 857-0580. CAC is a membership organization that provides the public with educational programs on issues related to America's role in the world, its foreign policies, and its capacities to contribute to peace. Its Citizenship Education and Peace Project encourages civic education programs on citizenship and publishes resource packets for educators.

Council on Foreign Relations, 58 East 68th St., New York, NY 10021; (212) 734-0400. Sponsors research, collaborative projects, and working groups on the international aspects of American political, economic, and strategic problems. Publishes *Foreign Affairs*.

Educators for Social Responsibility, 23 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138; (617) 492-1764. A national alliance of educators and parents working for nuclear arms reduction through school and community action/education projects.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS), Indiana University, 2805 East Tenth Street, Bloomington, IN 47408-2698; (812) 855-3838. ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is a nationwide network of sixteen clearinghouses, each one specializing in a particular subject area. ERIC/ChESS monitors trends and issues about the teaching and learning of history, geography, civics, economics, and other subjects in the social studies/social sciences.

Global Perspectives in Education, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038; (212) 732-8606. A nonpartisan educational effort, building upon American democratic traditions, to prepare youth for the challenges of national citizenship in a global age. Publishes *Global Resource Book* and *Global Yellow Pages*.

Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), 200 Lou Henry Hoover Building, Stanford, CA 94305-6012; (415) 723-1114. SPICE is committed to improving the international dimension of elementary and secondary education in the United States through curriculum and staff development programs. Curriculum and reference materials are available on Africa, China, Japan, Latin America, international economics, and international conflict and security issues.

Union of Concerned Scientists, 26 Church Street, Cambridge, MA 02238; (617) 547-5552. Seeks to conduct widespread education on issues that shape national security and arms control policy.

United States Institute of Peace, 1550 M St., NW, Washington, DC 20005; (202) 457-1700. Independent organization created by Congress to promote the nonviolent resolution of international conflict through negotiation and mediation. Provides education and training activities, research programs, and information to federal agencies and individuals.

World Council for Curriculum and Instruction, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405; (812) 337-1086. With the general goal of facilitating transnational cooperation among educators, WCCI seeks to develop curricula for international cooperation, peace, and global community-building.

BOOKS

Annual Report to the Congress. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1990. This annual publication by the secretary of defense reports on the status of U.S. military forces and weapons in the United States and overseas. It is available from the Department of Defense's public information office.

Parisi, Lynn S., and Robert D. LaRue. *Global/International Issues and Problems: A Resource Book for Secondary Schools*. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO, 1989. This reference tool offers students and teachers primary and secondary source information on global issues. Defines peace and security concerns, environmental problems, human rights, and developmental issues such as population, food, hunger, and health.

Reardon, Betty. *Comprehensive Peace Education: Educating for Global Responsibility*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1988. Assesses the current state of peace education and offers a new comprehensive approach to the field. A professional resource for teachers, teacher educators, and curriculum developers usable for courses in peace studies, global education, curriculum theory, and educational foundations.

Reardon, Betty, ed. *Educating for Global Responsibility: Teacher-Designed Curricula for Peace Education, K-12*. New York: Teachers' College Press, 1988. Designed both to furnish practical peace education material and to demonstrate the wide range of possibilities for integrating this material into all subject areas for all grades, this collection ranges from ready-to-go classroom exercises to descriptions of entire curricula.

Remy, Richard C., ed. *American Government and National Security*. New York: The Merishon Center, 1989. This sourcebook provides teachers with 32 supplemental lesson plans on American government and national security. Each lesson focuses on a national security topic, using case studies, sets of data, or excerpts from primary sources.

Switzer, Kenneth A., Paul T. Mulloy, and Karen Smith. *Global Issues: Activities and Resources for the High School Teacher*. Second Edition. Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, 1987. A guide to teaching about contemporary global concerns in the classroom. The concepts of global awareness and economic interdependence are introduced, with sample lessons for classroom use.

Zola, John, and Jaye Zola. *Teaching About Peace and Nuclear War: A Balanced Approach*. Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, 1986. A teachers' handbook for teaching about peace and nuclear war. The authors provide a rationale and definition for peace and nuclear war education, examine how teachers can teach about controversial issues, and suggest topics and strategies for teaching about peace and nuclear war at various grade levels.

CHAPTER 2. EYE ON THE SOVIET UNION

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

NOTE: Periodicals and journals listed in Chapter 1 frequently feature articles on the Soviet Union.

1. *East-West Outlook*. Bimonthly. American Committee on East-West Accord, 109 Eleventh Street, SE, Washington, DC 20003. Magazine focusing on U.S.-Soviet relations.
2. *International Affairs*. Monthly. Victor Kamkin, Inc., 149 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10010. Soviet magazine presenting the official government view on foreign relations.
3. *Problems of Communism*. Bimonthly. U.S. Information Agency, 301 Fourth St., SW, Washington, DC 20547. Magazine featuring scholarly articles about contemporary affairs of the Soviet Union, China, and communist governments and movements around the world.

ORGANIZATIONS

NOTE: Organizations listed in Chapter 1 frequently conduct programs and activities on the Soviet Union and U.S.-Soviet relations.

American Committee on U.S.-Soviet Relations, 109 Eleventh St., SE, Washington, DC 20003; (202) 546-1700. Members include individuals and organizations interested in improving East-West relations with special focus on U.S.-Soviet relations. Seeks to strengthen public understanding of arms control initiatives and encourages mutually beneficial programs in science, culture, and nonstrategic trade.

Institute for Soviet-American Relations, 1608 New Hampshire Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20009; (202) 387-3034. Works to encourage cultural, scientific, and educational exchanges between Soviet and American groups. Publishes a directory of organizations involved in Soviet-American relations.

Russian Research Center, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138; (617) 495-4037. Conducts research and offers academic programs in all aspects of Soviet studies—historical, economic, political, and cultural. Scholars in residence are from the Soviet Union, as well as other countries.

BOOKS

Ascher, Abraham, ed. *Studying Russian and Soviet History*. Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, 1987. Written to provide background for secondary teachers, this collection of essays by scholars and historians covers the Russian experience from pre-Petrine Russia to the Soviet Union under Gorbachev.

Corfe, Tom. *Russia's Revolution: Cambridge Introduction to World History*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1989. Spanning 20th century Russian government and politics, this book takes students through the history of the Soviet Union, from Bloody Sunday in 1905 St. Petersburg, to the *glasnost* and *perestroika* of today.

Eisen, Jonathan, ed. *The Glasnost Reader*. New York: Plume Books, 1989. What does the Soviet citizenry think of the recent changes there? This book contains the writings of Soviet citizens, from the man on a combine in the Ukraine and dissident Andrei Sakharov to a Gorbachev ally in the Politburo.

Goldman, Minton F. *The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe: Global Studies*. Second Edition. Guilford, CT: Dushkin Publishing Group, 1988. Covers the Soviet Union, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia with 37 world press articles.

Gorbachev, Mikhail. *Perestroika: New Thinking for Our Country and the World*. New York: Harper and Row Publications, 1988. The Soviet leader's personal examination of *perestroika*, the program of "restructuring" that is making changes in the USSR's domestic and foreign policy.

Smith, Hedrick. *The New Russians*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1990. This book is an updated version of Smith's earlier bestseller, *The Russians*, which examined the people, government, and culture of the Soviet Union. The writer lived there as a journalist for *The New York Times*.

The Soviet Union: Opposing Viewpoints. San Diego: Greenhaven Press, 1988. A collection of alternative pro and con debates on current topics. Opinions are expressed on the following questions: Does the Soviet Union seek world domination? Does the Soviet Union guarantee human rights? How strong is the Soviet economy? What is the Soviet Union's role in Eastern Europe? Is *glasnost* genuine? Among the contributors to the book are Mikhail Gorbachev, Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn, and Richard Perle.

U.S.-Soviet Relations. Revised Edition. Alexandria, VA: Close Up Foundation, 1990. Examining the superpowers and their changing roles, this book compares their differing world views, political systems, and their perceptions of each other throughout this century.

CHAPTER 3. THE HUMAN CONDITION: POVERTY AND PEACE

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

1. *Food Monitor*. Bimonthly. World Hunger Year Inc., 350 Broadway, Suite 209, New York, NY 10013. Magazine focusing on food and hunger issues.
2. *Third World Quarterly*. Quarterly. Third World Foundation for Social and Economic Studies, New Zealand House, 13th Floor, 80 The Haymarket, London SW1Y 4TS, England. Emphasis is on development in the Third World.

ORGANIZATIONS

Agency for International Development (AID), Economic Affairs, Main State Building, Washington, DC 20523; (202) 647-8558. Provides information and guidance on international economic policy issues affecting economic development of less developed nations.

Interfaith Action for Economic Justice, 110 Maryland Ave., NE, Washington, DC 20002; (202) 543-2800; toll free, 800-424-7292. Coalition of national religious organizations that develops recommendations on U.S. food and agricultural policies. Provides information on food stamps, development assistance, food aid, U.S. farm policy, and international economic issues; monitors legislation.

National Committee for World Food Day, 1001 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20437; (202) 653-2404. Consortium of farm, religious, nutrition, education, consumer, relief, and development organizations. Coordinates widespread community participation in World Food Day. Provides educational materials to promote World Food Day and a better understanding of food and hunger issues.

Overseas Development Council, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 234-8701. Seeks to promote understanding of development issues by the American public, policymakers, specialists, educators, and the media through its research, conferences, publications, and liaison with U.S. organizations interested in U.S. relations with the developing world.

Oxfam-America, 115 Broadway, Boston, MA 02216; (617) 482-1211. A private voluntary organization that provides relief services to famine-stricken areas, organizes and funds economic development projects in the Third World, and conducts education programs on food and economic development.

BOOKS

The Development Data Book: A Guide to Social and Economic Statistics. Second Edition. Washington: World Bank, 1988. Designed to increase understanding of economic development while strengthening skills in interpreting statistics, charts, and maps. Illustrating the differences between 129 developed and developing countries, this resource compares such indicators of social and economic conditions as life expectancy, primary school enrollment, population growth rates, GNP per capita, and exports.

Exploring The Third World: Development in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. New York: American Forum, 1987. Included are lessons focusing on economic growth, environmental issues, population growth, alternative development strategies, and the global economic system.

Harrison, Lawrence. ***Underdevelopment is a State of Mind: The Latin American Case.*** Lanham, MD: University Press of America, 1988. Argues that foreign aid does not work.

Hunger Project. ***Ending Hunger: An Idea Whose Time Has Come.*** New York: Praeger, 1985. After an overview of basic facts about hunger, the book presents differing perspectives on population, foreign aid, the New International Economic Order, and other issues about hunger.

McCuen, Gary E., ed. ***World Hunger and Social Justice: Ideas in Conflict.*** Hudson, NY: GEM/McCuen Publications, 1986. Background information, essays, and point/counterpoint debates on the plight of the world's hungry and ways to alleviate hunger.

Rohr, Janelle. *The Third World: Opposing Viewpoints*. San Diego: Greenhaven Press, 1989. Examining the economic, political, and social choices faced by Third World nations, this book provides an extensive variety of opinions and theories.

Third World 89/90: Annual Editions Series. Second Edition. Guilford, CT: Dushkin Publishing Group, 1989. An anthology of 46 articles reprinted from books and journals such as *Harpers*, *Foreign Policy*, *World Press Review*, and *The Progressive*. Topics addressed include human rights and democratic rule, limits of American power, and easing the debt crisis.

CHAPTER 4. DEMOCRACY: THE ROAD TO PEACE?

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

1. *Human Rights Internet Reporter*. Bimonthly. c/o Harvard Law School, Pound Hall, Room 401, Cambridge, MA 02138. Journal providing commentary on human rights around the world. Includes resources for teaching.
2. *Human Rights Quarterly*. Quarterly. The Johns Hopkins University Press, 701 West 40th St., Suite 275, Baltimore, MD 21211. Humanitarian magazine.
3. *Journal of Democracy*. Quarterly. National Endowment for Democracy, 1101 15th St., NW, Suite 200, Washington, DC 20005. Academic journal on democratization published by the National Endowment for Democracy.

ORGANIZATIONS

Amnesty International-USA, 304 West 58th St., New York, NY 10019; (212) 582-4440. An internationally based advocacy group working for the release of prisoners of conscience.

Council on Hemispheric Affairs, 1612 20th St., NW, Washington, DC 20009; (202) 745-7000. Monitors U.S.-Latin American and Canadian-Latin American relations, with emphasis on human rights and freedom of the press. Provides educational materials, holds conferences, and issues an annual survey on human rights and freedom of the press.

Human Rights Internet, c/o Harvard Law School, Pound Hall, Room 401, Cambridge, MA 02138; (617) 495-9924. Serves as a clearing-house of information for human rights educators and advocates throughout the world.

National Endowment for Democracy, 1101 15th St., NW, Suite 203, Washington, DC 20005; (202) 293-9072. Government-financed effort to promote worldwide development of democratic values and human rights and freedoms through private sector initiatives.

BOOKS

Fraenkel, Jack R., Margaret Carter, and Betty Reardon. *The Struggle for Human Rights: A Question of Values*. New York: Random House/World Order Series, 1975. Against a background of real-life vignettes, defines human rights and specifies them in terms of the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.

Frankel, Marvin E., and Ellen Saideman. *Out of the Shadows of Night: The Struggle for International Human Rights*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1989. Tracing the experiences of Nazi Germany, South Africa's apartheid, the *desaparecidos* of Argentina, and recent events in Chile, China, Indonesia, Paraguay, Poland, Turkey, and Zaire, this book examines the evolution of treaties, trials, and organizations designed to protect human rights, and shows how individual efforts through voluntary organizations can have a positive effect.

Freeman, Charles. *Human Rights: Today's World*. London: B.T. Batsford, 1988. Drawing on examples from all over the world, this resource surveys the history of human rights and investigates the status of human rights in the contemporary world.

Goodwin, Paul B., ed. *Latin America: Global Studies*. Third Edition. Guilford, CT: Dushkin Publishing Group, 1988. Covers four regions (Mexico, Central America, South America, and the Caribbean), with 33 country reports and 23 articles from the world press.

Shiman, David. *Teaching About Human Rights: Issues of Justice in a Global Age*. Denver, CO: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1988. The activities in this resource focus on political, civil, social, and economic rights and are primarily based on the framework provided by articles of the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.

Szumski, Bonnie, ed. *Latin America and U.S. Foreign Policy: Opposing Viewpoints*. San Diego: Greenhaven Press, 1987. Provides alternating pro and con debates on such questions as: Is U.S. intervention the cause of Latin America's problems? How should the United States deal with Latin American human rights conditions? Are Latin American revolutions a threat to the United States? What form of government is best for Latin America? How serious is the Latin American debt?

CHAPTER 5. THE GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT: A COMMON TRUST

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

1. *The Journal of Environmental Education*. Quarterly. Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation, 4000 Albermarle St., NW, Washington, DC 20016. Environmental education journal.
2. *Population Bulletin*. Quarterly. Circulation Department, Population Reference Bureau, 1337 Connecticut Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20036. Magazine on population studies.

ORGANIZATIONS

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), 401 M St., SW, Washington, DC 20460; (202) 586-5325. U.S. government agency that administers federal environmental policies, research, and regulations; provides information on many environmental subjects including water pollution, hazardous and solid waste, air and noise pollution, pesticides, and radiation. Its National Workforce Development Staff develops environmental education programs, curricula, and materials for kindergarten through postgraduate levels.

Friends of the Earth, 1045 Sansome, San Francisco, CA 94111; (415) 433-7373 (or 530 Seventh St., SE, Washington, DC 20003; (202) 543-4312). A membership organization engaged in research, education, and advocacy on environmental and ecological issues, including energy and development policies. Provides information on international environmental affairs and arms control.

National Wildlife Federation, 1400 16th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 797-6800. A nationwide conservation education organization concerned with conserving natural resources and preserving the environment. Provides information on the environment, including toxic substances and air, water, and solid waste pollution.

Population Reference Bureau, 2213 M St., NW, Washington, DC 20037; (202) 785-4644. PRB is a private/nonprofit organization that compiles surveys of population issues, plans, and trends; a public resource center provides additional population statistics. The Bureau also publishes a newsletter, "Population Today."

United States Public Interest Research Group (USPIRG), 215 Pennsylvania Ave., SE, Washington, DC 20003; (202) 546-9707. Coordinates grassroots efforts to advance environmental protection laws; conducts research on environmental issues; compiles reports and provides public information on such issues; drafts and monitors legislation regarding environmental laws; and testifies on behalf of proposed environmental legislation.

Worldwatch Institute, 1776 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 452-1999. Research organization that focuses on an interdisciplinary approach to global environmental problem-solving. Areas of interest include natural resources and human needs and environmental threats to food production.

BOOKS

Becklake, John. *The Climate Crisis: Greenhouse Effect and the Ozone Layer*. New York: Watts, 1989. This book looks at the reasons why the ozone layer is vital to the earth, assesses the potential harm its destruction could cause humankind and the environment, and explains why measures should be taken quickly to prevent further damage to the ozone layer.

Belgrave, Robert, Charles K. Ebinger, and Hideaki Okino. *Energy Security to 2000*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1987. This book addresses problems of energy security, surveying research from institutes in the United States, Japan, and Europe. Focuses on unstable oil prices, increased dependence on an unpredictable Middle East, the problems of developing nuclear energy after Chernobyl, possible future strains on the oil supply, and the feasibility of alternative energy sources.

Brown, Lester R., et al. *State of the World 1990: A Worldwatch Institute Report on Progress Toward a Sustainable Society*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 1990. Drawing on social research and statistical data, this annually updated report monitors trends in the world's natural resource bases, indicates how nations are adjusting to changes in the base, and discusses a global action plan. The 1990 edition covers such topics as air pollution, the climate, poverty, water, food, life expectancy, demilitarizing the world economy, and the bicycle.

McCuen, Gary, ed. *Our Endangered Atmosphere—Global Warming and the Ozone Layer: Ideas in Conflict*. Hudson, NY: GEM/McCuen Publications, 1987. Scientists, environmentalists, and other experts debate the consequences of global warming in this book. An overview explains how the loss of tropical forests may affect the earth's climate and discusses the influence of the oceans on the environment.

Middleton, Nick. *Atlas of Environmental Issues*. New York: Facts on File, 1989. Full-color drawings surround maps of environmentally troubled areas in this introduction to the world's major environmental problems. Illustrations, captions, and tables show how human activities affect the world's vegetation, soils, water, animals, and air.

CHAPTER 6. THE WORLD ECONOMY

PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS

1. *Economic Perspectives*. Quarterly. American Economic Association, 1313 21st Ave. South, Nashville, TN 37212. Written for people who are not economists, this magazine gives overviews of trends in economics.
2. *Foreign Affairs*. 5 issues/yr. Foreign Affairs Reader Services, 58 East 68th St., New York, NY 10021. Foreign policy journal with some articles on trade and economics.
3. *Inter Dependent*. Bimonthly. 485 Fifth Ave., 2nd Floor, New York, NY 10017. Journal of the United Nations Association.
4. *Journal of Economic Education*. Quarterly. 4000 Albermarle St., NW, Washington, DC 20016. This journal promotes the teaching and learning of economics in college, high school, and elementary schools. It features research in economic education, topics in economics, and teaching innovations.
5. *World Economy*. Quarterly. Printed World Ltd., 515 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10022. Journal on international economic affairs.

ORGANIZATIONS

Council on Foreign Relations, 58 East 68th St., New York, NY 10021; (212) 734-0400. Sponsors research, collaborative projects, and working groups on international concerns, including economic problems.

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank), 1818 H St., NW, Washington, DC 20433; (202) 477-2001. Collects data on selected economic indicators, world trade, flow of financial resources, and external public debt. Most data and the bank's financial statements are published in its annual report, the World Debt Tables, and the World Development Report.

National Chamber Foundation, 1615 H St., NW, Washington, DC 20062; (202) 463-5620. Public policy research organization affiliated with the U.S. Chamber of Commerce. Analyzes and publishes studies of domestic and international economic policy issues.

New York Federal Reserve Bank, Public Information, 33 Liberty St., New York, NY 10045; (212) 720-6134. Provides teaching materials for all grade levels on macroeconomics and international economics.

Wall Street Journal, 200 Liberty St., New York, NY 10281; (212) 416-2000. Publishes an education edition that explains how to read and interpret the financial sections of the newspaper. Introduces students to basic economic concepts.

BOOKS

Guttman, William. *Between Bailout and Breakdown: A Modular Approach to the Latin American Debt Crisis*. Washington: Center for Strategic and International Studies, 1989. This book asserts that repudiation, default, bankruptcy, and systematic collapse are hanging over the financial community, Latin countries, and the world economy. The author presents some initiatives to assist policymakers.

International Trade—Teaching Strategies (Secondary). New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1988. Twenty-three complete lessons use economic principles to view the global marketplace. Offering strategies for practicing economic reasoning, activities, and reproducible handouts, the lessons can be used to add an international dimension to traditional economics classes, as a short course on international trade, or with individual current events exercises.

Introduction to International Trade. Intercom Series #108. New York: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 1986. Introduces basic economic concepts and issues such as the mechanics of trade, protectionism, balance of payments, and global production systems. An activity-oriented approach helps make the global dynamics of trade relevant to students' daily lives, and a variety of approaches are used to teach skills such as map and graph interpretation, role play, critical reading, and analysis and evaluation of data.

NOTES:


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